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ABSTRACT

A consensus exists regarding the need to improve law enforcement and to upgrade the quality of police officers through the imposition of higher educational standards. Three rationales for educational upgrading include: (1) to improve effectiveness in performing crime control functions through better motivation and greater ability in applying systems and technology, (2) to improve performance effectiveness of "order maintenance' functions through a balanced use of social counseling and law enforcement techniques, and (3) to insure proper exercise of police discretionary power. Research to assess educational upgrading efforts revealed that (1) police educational levels have risen significantlyduring the last few years, and (2) educational levels of police recruits in a particular agency are a function of the extrinsic rather than intrinsic characteristics of that agency. A curriculum for law enforcement education should be based on a prescriptive/theoretical approach. The appended materials (39 pages) present a model curriculum for the educational preparation of police and criminal justice personnel. It includes: (1) guidelines for 20 recommended professional courses of a criminal justice baccalaureate curriculum with a catalog description, selected reading resources, and course outline for each course; (2) a research questionnaire; (3) relevant contingency tables; and (4) a bibliography. (Author/EC)

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POLICE EDUCATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND CURRICULA

By

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U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

Concern about the quality of the nation's police has intensified in recent years, as crime has spiralled upward and social upheaval has become part of the urban landscape. Much effort has been devoted to upgrading the caliber of the individual officer through incorporating higher educational standards into the selection of criteria. This approach was first recommended by the Wickersham Crime Commission in 1931, and it has been the consensus of commissions and individual authorities for almost 45 years.

This monograph provides a well-presented argument in support of higher educational standards for police officers. It raises questions of significance to law enforcement officials, and should foster further debate in this controversial area.

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ABSTRACT

The monograph consists of an examination of the rationale for higher police educational standards, a report of research relevant to the impact of upgrading efforts, a critique of current educational programming, and the explication of a model criminal justice curriculum appropriate for both police and other criminal justice system personnel. Three distinct but related rationales are developed relevant to educational upgrading. The rationales involve police ability to control crime, perform their order maintenance function, and properly exercise discretion. The research reported includes an assessment of current police recruit educational levels; patterns of employment of collegiate recruits; the impact of the Law Enforcement Education Program, police cadet programs, and agency reward programs; the influence of agency characteristics in attracting and retaining collegiate recruits, and the impact of the development of educational programs in law enforcement and criminal justice. An examination of present educational programming postulates several major deficiencies. A model curriculum is proposed which provides a broad theoretical orientation to the entire criminal justice process. The model consists of guidelines for twenty criminal justice courses. Each guideline includes both selected related readings and a content outline.

PREFACE

During the past decade, various individuals and groups representing many areas of public responsibility have called for the upgrading of America's police personnel. Concern with the quality of the nation's police has been intensified by continued social upheaval in our society, rising street crime—ghetto riots, and disorders related to political protest catalyzing demand for the improvement of law enforcement personnel. Although no law enforcement system could or should entirely control social problems generated by broad cultural changes, nevertheless it is apparent that ineffectual police response to public distress has often furthered serious avoidable manifestations of the problems. Proliferate efforts are thus underway to improve the caliber of police personnel and, more particularly, the educational backgrounds of these personnel. This monograph evaluates aspects of the impact of such efforts, and offers a suggested model curriculum appropriate for the educational preparation of both police and other criminal justice personnel.

SUMMARY

This monograph consists of an examination of the rationale for higher police educational standards, a report of research conducted relevant to the impact of upgrading efforts, a critique of current educational programming, and the explication of a model criminal justice curriculum appropriate for both police and other criminal justice system personnel.

In examining the rationale for educational upgrading, the difficulties in discerning positive impact from collegiate experiences are described. The difficulties encountered include identification of appropriate productivity measures, the attenuating influence of agency milieu, the subliminal nature of the attributes resulting from education, and present limitations on the police patrolman's role. A tripartite rationale is developed relevant to educational upgrading. The first of these relates to improving the effectiveness of the police in performing their crime control function, through better motivation and greater ability to apply systems and technology. The second relates to the effectiveness with which the police are able to perform their "order maintenance" function through more balanced use of social counseling and law enforcement techniques. The third relates to ensuring proper exercise of police discretionary power.

The purpose of the research reported in this monograph was to determine the current educational levels of police recruits in the United States, the influence of efforts to raise these levels, and the influence of certain factors affecting college-educated recruits' choice of a particular agency for employment. In order to obtain a national sample, four states representative of national characteristics were selected for inclusion in the study: California, Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas.

The major findings pertinent to each issue addressed are:

Current Educational Levels: The data from this study indicate that some 37 percent of the recruits now entering police service have been in college for at least one year; in California, this percentage is an atypical 73 percent. Some 10 percent of the police recruits now entering law enforcement have completed four or more years of college.

Patterns of Employment: Generalized patterns of employment by size or type of agency according to level of education do not emerge, although certain large metropolitan agencies apparently do experience difficulty in attracting collegiate recruits.

The Impact of the Law Enforcement Education Program: Only 13 percent of collegiate police recruits now entering police service have received direct financial assistance through the Law Enforcement Education Program. However, because this assistance was differentially distributed, 23 percent to law enforcement majors as opposed to 4 percent to others, the program has fostered development of academic programs in law enforcement, hence, indirectly upgrading the educational level of police recruits. The receipt of LEEP assistance related positively to level of education attained.

The Impact of Police Cadet Programs: Some 18 percent of collegiate police recruits had experienced prior involvement in a cadet program. Cadet involvement relates positively to associate degree attainment, but negatively to baccalaureate attainment.

The Impact of Agency Reward Programs: Fifty-eight percent of the police recruits who received a reward for completed education indicate that it had at least some influence in their decision to seek employment with the particular agency they did. The existence of a reward for completed education also relates positively

to anticipated tenure in present employing agencies. Police recruits rank a percentage salary increment as the most attractive reward program for completed education.

The Impact of Agency Characteristics: Agency reputation appears to be very influential in attracting collegiate recruits. This phenomenon is substantiated by the ranking of agency career and promotion opportunities and agency prestige as the two most important influences affecting the choice of a particular agency. The existence of higher educational standards in an agency appears closely related to these factors. Overall, the order assigned to factors enumerated in this study as influential in police recruits' selection of a particular agency are, in descending impact: (1) agency career and promotion opportunities, (2) agency prestige, (3) agency salary, (4) nature of agency jurisdiction, (5) agency recruitment efforts, (6) only available police employment at the time. The order assigned the factors varied according to size of agency, career and promotion opportunities being more important among police recruits in large agencies, and the nature of agency jurisdiction being ranked more important among recruits in small agencies.

Anticipated Tenure: Level of education does not appear to influence anticipated tenure in the criminal justice field, but does influence anticipated tenure in present employing agencies. An overwhelming majority of police recruits (95 percent) anticipate permanent careers in the criminal justice field; only 70 percent, however, anticipate lifetime careers with their present agency. Furthermore, foreseeable tenure in present agencies varies according to level of education—recruits with four or more years of college anticipating shorter tenure than those with less education. Emergent, however, is a type of agency attractive to college-educated police recruits who express longer anticipated tenure with their present agency. These are the agencies which tend to offer better career and promotion opportunities, are of higher prestige, offer better initial salaries, impose higher educational requirements, and are larger in size.

The Impact of Educational Programs in Law Enforcement: About half of the collegiate police recruits entering law enforcement have majored in law enforcement or criminal justice as a field of academic study. The associate degree appears to be academically terminal to a large proportion of law enforcement majors, although a significant number do attain a baccalaureate degree. Majoring in law enforcement does appear to be related to the development of a commitment to the police service as a career.

Two generalized conclusions can be drawn from these findings. The first of these is that current efforts to educationally upgrade the police have resulted in moving police educational levels to a transitory stage between high school and college; nearly one-half of the police recruits now being employed have completed at least one year of college. The second conclusion is that the educational levels of police recruits in a particular agency are a function of the extrinsic rather than intrinsic characteristics of that agency. Most notable among the extrinsic characteristics are agency career and promotion opportunities, agency prestige, the existence of higher education employment requirements, and reward programs for completed education.

Examination of present educational programming reveals three primary deficiencies. First, most curricula include far too many professionally oriented courses. Second, most programs place undue emphasis upon curricula designed to train students to perform specific operational tasks. Third, there is a need for criminal justice educational programming to provide a broad theoretical orientation to the entire criminal justice system and process, rather than a focus upon any particular component.

A model criminal justice curriculum is proposed. Its characteristics include:

incorporation of systemic examination of the entire criminal justice process, placement in the context of a liberal arts education based in the social sciences, and analytic rather than prescriptive content. The model consists of guidelines for twenty criminal justice courses. Each guideline includes both selected related readings and a content outline.

CHAPTER I. EDUCATIONAL UPGRADING: THE RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Consensus Agreement, Upgrade the Police

Crime as a phenomenon is extremely complex; its incidence, during any given time, resulting from varied social dynamics. Police charged with controlling it are one component of a criminal justice system consisting also of legislative, prosecutorial, judicial, and corrective elements. Numerically accounting for 64 percent of criminal justice personnel and 59 percent of criminal justice expenditures,[1] what the police can and cannot do is still very much constrained by the other components of the system.

Nevertheless study commissions convened to investigate crime and its attendant social ills unanimously recognize inadequate or ineffective police response as contributing significantly to the problem of crime in this country. The Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice has pointed out that:

> The failure to establish high professional standards in police service has been a costly one, both for the police and for society. Existing selection requirements and procedures for the majority of departments . . . do not screen out the unfit . . . the quality of police service will not significantly improve until higher educational requirements are established for its personnel.[2]

The Commission recommends eventual establishment of a baccalaureate requirement of all police personnel.

The Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals has suggested a specific time-table for the implementation of a baccalaureate requirement:

1. Every police agency should require immediately, as a condition of initial employment, the completion of at least 1 year of education (30 semester units) at an accredited college or university. Otherwise, qualified police applicants who do not satisfy this condition, but who have earned a high school diploma or its equivalent, should be employed under a contract requiring completion of the educational requirement within 3 years of initial employment.

2. Every police agency should, no later than 1975, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least 2 years of education (60 semester units) at an accredited college or university.

3. Every police agency should, no later than 1978, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least 3 years of education (90 semester units) at an accredited college or university.

4. Every police agency should, no later than 1982, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least 4 years of education (120 semester units or a baccalaureate degree) at an accredited college or university.[3]

Similarly raised general standards for police are recommended by other governmental commissions. As observed by the Governor's Mutual Assistance Program for Criminal Justice, "'. . . improvement of police personnel is the most important facet of improving the police function.'" [4] The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations recommended that at the earliest practicable time state law mandate that no person be appointed law enforcement officer unless "the holder of a bachelor's degree from an accredited institution." [5] A Task Force on Education and Training formulated

[1] Expenditure and Employment Data 1970–71. Department of Justice/LEAA and Department of Commerce/Bureau of the Census. April 1973. pp. 5–7.

[2] President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report: The Police* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 125, 126.

[3] National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. *Report on the Police* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973), p. 369.

[4] Governors' Mutual Assistance Program for Criminal Justice. *Where We Stand in the Fight Against Crime* (Washington, D.C.: National Governors' Conference, 1973), p. 49.

[5] Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations. *For a More Perfect Union—Police Reform* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 7.

by the Police Foundation (subsidiary of the Ford Foundation) recommended that as part of the primary thrust of the Foundation's efforts to assist police agencies it "should stimulate massive, imaginative, and systematic recruitment of college graduates for police departments." [6] The American Bar Association in its publication *Standards for the Urban Police Function* recommended that:

> College graduates should be encouraged to apply for employment with police agencies. Individuals aspiring to careers in police agencies and those currently employed as police officers should be encouraged to advance their education at the college level. Communities should support further educational achievement on the part of police personnel by adopting such devices as educational incentive pay plans, and by gradually instituting requirements for the completion of specified periods of college work as a prerequisite for initial appointment and for promotion.[7]

Similar recommendations were made by the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders,[8] and the Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence.[9]

B. Education as the Key to Professionalism

The recommendation of these numerous commissions that improvement of the quality of police personnel would improve the effectiveness of the American police service was not made without careful consideration of existing alternatives. However, it has been established for some time that saturating the streets with policemen is not the answer. The 1967 President's Commission observed that the ratios of police per thousand population in cities over 500,000 range from 1.2 to 5.4, but that no discernible relationships exist between these ratios and reported rates of crime.

A second alternative to personnel improvement is the improvement of police operations per se. However, since improvement of operations is intrinsically related to quality of staff, a point of diminishing returns is soon reached if efforts are concentrated solely on technology and systems. Ultimately consideration again reverts to the need for improving the quality of police personnel by improving educational standards.

It has been observed that "some twenty professional groups, including law, medicine, engineering, architecture, teaching, veterinary medicine, pharmacy, etc. . . . have set minimum academic requirements . . . to improve the quality and economic status of their practitioners in order to protect the public. . . ." [10] The implication for the police service is obvious. Genuine professionalism based upon a service ideal is intrinsically related to higher educational standards. Authorities too numerous to quote as individuals, who have advocated professionalism for the police service, concurrently have advocated higher educational standards.[11]

In summary, the consensus of both study commissions and individual authorities in the field is that to improve law enforcement, the quality of the individual police officer must be upgraded, and the most effective means is by the imposition of higher educational standards. This need was first recognized in the recommendations of the Wickersham Crime Commission in 1931. Since that time the effort to infuse higher educational standards into the selection criteria for police officers has steadily gained momentum.

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[6] Police Foundation, "Education and Training Task Force Report" (unpublished report of the Police Foundation, a subsidiary of the Ford Foundation, 1972), p. 40.

[7] American Bar Association Project on Standards for Criminal Justice, *The Urban Police Function* (New York: American Bar Association, 1972), p. 20.

[8] *Report on the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders* (New York: Bantam Books, 1968), Chapter 11.

[9] *To Establish Justice, to Insure Domestic Tranquility: Final Report on the Causes and Prevention of Violence* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969), Chapter 3, paragraph 76, and Appendix 1, paragraph 275.

[10] A. C. Germann as quoted in George H. Brereton, "The Importance of Training and Education in the Professionalization of Law Enforcement," *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science* (58:2), pp. 112, 113.

[11] August Vollmer in *The Police and Modern Society;* V. A. Leonard in *Police Personnel Management;* Raymond Fosdick in *American Police Systems;* Clark and Chapman in *Forward Step: Educational Backgrounds for Police;* Louis Radelet in *The Police and the Community;* Thomas Frost in *A Forward Look in Police Education;* Wilson E. Purdy in *The Police Chief* (32:16); William Parker in *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science* (55:2); Allen Gammage in *Police Training in the United States;* Donal MacNamara in *Public Administration Review* (10:187); Quinn Tamm in *The Police Chief* (29:5); O. W. Wilson in *Police Administration;* George Berkley in *The Democratic Policeman;* and numerous others.

CHAPTER II. THE RATIONALE FOR COLLEGIATE STANDARDS

Had it not been for a spiraling crime rate, the magnitude of current efforts to upgrade America's police would not be nearly as significant. It is generally felt that officers with a collegiate background will be better motivated and better able to apply systems techniques and processes to the management of police agencies. It follows that these attributes will contribute in numerous and diverse ways to police effectiveness, resulting in the reduction of crime. It is necessary, however, to examine in a more specific sense the nature of the improvement in police effectiveness which one might expect from higher educational standards.

The need for such specificity is apparent. The issue has been raised in a number of contexts, the most recent being suits alleging that higher educational requirements are inherently racially discriminatory. The allegations are based upon the fact that the need for higher education for police personnel has not been soundly established, and that the imposition of such standards discriminates against minorities who have less access to higher education. One of the more celebrated cases is that involving the Arlington, Virginia, Police Department, where a ruling by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission sparked two editorials in the *Washington Post* (January 19, 1975, and January 27, 1975).

Several studies have been undertaken to identify differences in performance between police officers with a collegiate background and those without. The results of these studies tend to support the contention that those with a college background are in fact better performers. Research findings have not been conclusive, however. Among the studies completed lending support to higher educational standards are:

1. A report cited in the text *Up-Grading the American Police*, by Charles B. Saunders; Bookings Institution, 1970, p. 88: From a letter signed by James Rutherford, chief of police of Flint, Michigan. "In Flint, Michigan, a random sample of 19 officers with at least 60 hours of college credit averaged 85.22 on performance ratings over a six-month period, compared with a 76.35 average for a similar number of officers without college education."

2. A report by Melany Baehr, John Furcon, and Ernest Froemel entitled "Psychological Assessment of Patrolman Qualifications in Relation to Field Performance," (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968): "Analysis of the performance patterns of 500 Chicago patrolmen found that the highest-rated group of long-tenured officers had significantly higher educational achievement than other groups and had demonstrated a continuing interest in technical or professional development after completion of their academic studies."

3. "Police Background Characteristics and Performance Study" by Bernard Cohen and Jan Chaiken; available through the New York City Rand Institute; 545 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10022. As in the Chicago and Flint instances, a positive correlation did exist between education and performance in terms of citizen complaints and promotion.

4. Research described in an article in the *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 1:4, "Motivations Guiding Policemen in the Arrest Process" by Charles Bozza: ". . . Younger officers of the Costa Mesa Police Department with higher educational levels make more arrests than officers who are older and have less education."

Although these results are encouraging, all of the studies suffer from both sampling problems and an inability to relate better performance directly to education. Several other studies have been unable to establish any significant positive relationship.

A. Difficulties in Demonstrating Better Performance

More difficult that one might initially realize are problems of establishing the appropriate criteria to be applied in measuring performance. One must clearly define the ways in which performance is expected to improve as a result of college education. For instance, in a police department with

extremely low productivity in terms of arrest rates, clearance rates, and the like, one might very well expect that the infusion of officers with a collegiate background would lead to increased productivity, as measured by these standards. If this were definitively one of the goals of recruiting collegiate officers, and the behavior of the officers was directed to these ends, then certainly higher arrest and clearance rates would indicate the success of the imposition of higher educational requirements. On the other hand, however, arrest and clearance rates are often highly inflated and, in fact, counterproductive. That is, arrests are made in many situations which would lend themselves to alternative solution, or arrests are made with insufficient evidence, or crimes are reported cleared upon dubious criteria. If this situation is attributed to the competence of agency personnel, and it often can be, then the infusion of collegiate officers might very well be directed toward the goal of reducing arrest and clearance rates, although reductions in these rates are usually thought of as indicating poorer performance. Similarly, one might desire the crime rate to go up or down depending upon the perceived ability of officers to establish community rapport and affect extent of reporting, and thus desire rates to rise in some instances and fall in others. In short, determining the success of any police program, including higher personnel standards, is an extremely complex task. The appropriateness of a particular productivity measure is dependent upon individual agency and situational characteristics. Hence, efforts at establishing the credibility of higher educational standards for the police are plagued by an inability to define appropriate variables to differentiate "good" performance from "bad" performance.

A specific example might illustrate this point. On one beat of a particular midwestern jurisdiction the rate of drunk and disorderly arrests had traditionally been fairly high, the reason for this phenomenon was the existence of a homosexual bar on the beat, and the attitude of traditional officers that any patron of that bar who demonstrated the slightest hint of intoxication was fair game for an arrest. The assignment of a young officer with a collegiate background and more liberal attitudes brought about a dramatic reduction in the number of drunk and disorderly arrests on the particular beat. The reduction was significant enough to bring about some pressure on the part of sergeants in the agency to "get out there and get with it," the assumption being that the collegiate rookie was wasting his time rather than pounding the streets and alleys of his beat and keeping them clear of undesirable drunks. Initially, the rookie wasn't even aware of the reason for his "inadequate" arrest performance, and thought that he was in fact not performing well. The situation was resolved when he was reassigned to another beat.

How does one establish by systematic, rigorous research that the collegiate rookie was doing a "better" or "worse" job than his traditional counterpart? Keep in mind that the command personnel of the agency did not necessarily see the performance of the collegiate rookie as being appropriate; i.e., as far as they were concerned, ridding the street of "queers" was perfectly legitimate behavior. Hence, the use of supervisory ratings rather than "hard data" solves nothing. Supervisory ratings reflect only the traditional biases of the agency's performance criteria, and hence are no better measures than the criteria themselves, and perhaps worse.

The reward structure of almost all police agencies today limits the ability of college graduates to demonstrate the value of a liberal education. Typically one is not rewarded for better performance of the social service tasks of the police. Instead, reward systems are based solely upon the ability to make arrests. It has been noted that in most police agencies notoriety is obtained by either becoming involved in a gun battle or making a "big bust." A college education contributes little to one's ability to perform either of these endeavors more effectively than anyone else. On the other hand, the proper referral of a criminal offender in need of psychiatric care either goes unrecognized or may even be negatively rewarded. This author is reminded of a situation wherein over a period of two months two separate incidences occurred in the same agency involving a mentally deranged subject with a gun. In the first case, the officers were fired upon by a subject with a handgun, but did not return the fire. Instead they implored him to throw the gun down, then chased him into a house and seized him just as he was reaching for a loaded shotgun. Command personnel were present immediately after the occurrence, but no accommodation or verbal compliment ensued. The incident the following month involved another mental subject, this time with a rifle. The subject fired the rifle, then began approaching the police car. When he would not halt, he was shot and killed by the responding officers. In the second incident both officers received letters of accommodation from the chief of police for bravery in the

line of duty. The point is not that the officers in the second incident did not deserve the letter. They held their fire for as long as they thought was reasonable. However, it is important to note that similar action was not taken in the first incident. One is rewarded by spectacular shootings and arrests.

The whole issue can be summed up with this observation: Every police daily activity sheet with which this author is familiar has a block in which the number of arrests is recorded; no police activity sheet with which this author is familiar has a block to note the number of referrals to social agencies.

A twenty-two-year-old with a baccalaureate degree is hardly a saint, and certainly can't be expected to have developed a firm dedication to a congruent and consistent ideal of what the police role ought to be. That is to say, the college graduate is still very much subject to socialization pressures within an agency, despite prior educational socialization. A young rookie police officer will not spend an extra four hours of his off-duty time seeking a mental detainer from probate court if all that will accomplish for him is being referred to by the derisive title of "do-gooder." Organizational climate in many agencies prevents any demonstration of the attributes one would expect obtained from higher education.

The problem of determining enhanced productivity is further complicated by inappropriate expectations. What we have unfortunately failed to recognize in both police training and educational programming is that most of the specific tasks of patrolmen can only be learned adequately through experience. The police role involves knowledge of dozens of formulas, dozens of forms, and scores of "ways of doing things." No amount of formal instruction given in the classroom will, for instance, prevent a police recruit from being "had" a few times by con artists on the street. Sociologists like McNamara, Skolnik, and Wilson have all observed that there is a significant body of knowledge in the police service characterized by the term "street wisdom." It is unfortunate that far too many administrators, and even a number of educators, have looked to formal educational programs to enhance a student's ability to apply and use street wisdom. It will simply not happen. As a matter of fact, we could probably expect certain deficiencies in this regard on the part of college graduates. One aspect of street wisdom is knowledge of the value systems, jargon, and the like of lower socio-economic classes, and the recruitment of college graduates will diminish rather than increase the possession of such knowledge on the part of police forces. A college-educated officer will not necessarily be a better officer in every possible way. Some hard decisions have to be made regarding the attributes one is willing to give up in any personnel selection process in order to gain other attributes.

Another serious methodological problem plaguing efforts to justify higher educational standards for the police is establishing precisely what level of improved performance justifies the imposition of higher standards. That is to say, it is not merely enough to establish that collegiate police officers do perform more adequately, however defined, than non-collegiate officers. It must be established that the increase in productivity justifies the increased expense and the difficulties thus created for minority recruitment. Such a determination would be difficult enough to make if police productivity was easily measured, or the goals of the police service universally agreed upon by those in the field. However, this is not the case.

The problem of determining "significant" productivity differences is compounded by the fact that the nature of the police patrolman's task is generally far more constrained than is wise. If we conceive of the task as merely writing traffic tickets and shining a spotlight in windows to ascertain whether they are broken, then certainly arguments for higher educational standards are weak. However, if the task is made what it ought to be, then any standard less than a baccalaureate degree is inappropriate.

One cannot expect to place college graduates in a job that involves only routine and mundane tasks and have them perform significantly better. In fact, a college education can increase expectations such that if college graduates are delegated nothing but routine or mundane tasks, the motivational level among them as a group will be lower than the motivational level which might be expected from those without a college background. We will only realize the full potential of raising police educational standards whenever the police task is adjusted to complement the educational background of the recruit. Efforts to substantiate or justify the need for a college background among police officers suffer from the fact that in many if not most agencies the police task is not even what it ought to be.

B. Applying Collegiate Ability to the Crime Problem

Two factors tend to converge to strengthen arguments to change and expand the degree of

responsibility given to police patrolmen. The first of these is the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Study conducted by the Police Foundation; the second is the recommendations flowing from personnel motivational research during the last decade.

The Kansas City Study demonstrated what many of those in the field had suspected for a considerable time: that merely cruising around in a police patrol vehicle without specific direction and purpose wasn't accomplishing much in the way of crime control. It is apparent that if the Kansas City Study is acceptd as valid, and/or is confirmed by additional research, then it behooves us to explore alternatives to current police patrol activity patterns. For the most part, the alternatives that exist involve the reallocation of resources to address particular offenders or classes of offenses.

Numerous jurisdictions are experimenting with such alternatives, often under the auspices of team policing plans. The alternatives involve using the patrolman as a counselor for both youthful and adult offenders, delegating to the patrolman increased investigative responsibility, and making the patrolman responsible for establishing a network of community contacts useful to the control of criminal conduct. When the police task is so conceived, it is anything but a mundane and routine job. And if we are to attribute validity to the Kansas City Study, then the patrolman's task should definitely be changed to direct his energies toward the kinds of complex activities having a greater potential for contributing to crime reduction than does routine patrol.

The second compelling reason to expand and enlarge the role of the police patrolman is the cumulative results of motivational research during the last ten to twenty years. The research indicates that three characteristics of employment will contribute substantially to the motivation of personnel, and hence increase productivity. The first of these is a change in management style which moves emphasis from supervision of processes to supervision of goal attainment. Such a difference in style was characterized by Douglas McGregor in *The Human Side of Enterprise* as theory X versus theory Y management. The second characteristic is summarized by the term "participative management." Research indicates that whenever employees are provided the opportunity to participate in decisions regarding the procedures and policies affecting their work, motivation increases substantially, and hence productivity. Participative management involves the delegation of policy-making responsibility to operational personnel, and is best described by Rensis Likert in *New Patterns of Management*. The third characteristic is related to the previous two, but nevertheless distinctive from them. Research indicates that whenever particular jobs are expanded in terms of responsibility and complexity, motivation and hence productivity increase. The term "job enrichment" is used to describe this phenomenon. Taken together, these three factors indicate a need to dramatically alter the nature of the police patrolman's task. They indicate a need to assess police performance by measurement of the attainment of objectives rather than adherence to rules and regulations; to delegate discretion to the patrolman and involve him in the policy-making process; and to expand significantly the nature of the responsibilities given patrolmen. Whenever the research findings from personnel motivational research are combined with the findings of the Kansas City Study, one moves much closer to a model of a police role which involves professsional skills rather than those of a craftsman.

The importance of strongly motivated personnel cannot be overstressed. A misconception which must be overcome is the illusion that police patrol units function as tightly controlled, carefully directed units of a crime strike force. The illusion is perpetuated by frequent reference to police forces fighting a "war on crime," as if patrol units were analogous to army units fighting military battles in the field. What is in fact the case is the existence in any jurisdiction of as many independent functioning police units as there are patrolmen on the street at any given time. Close field supervision of police patrol units randomly roving throughout a jurisdiction is impossible. Just how impossible was illustrated in one agency where patrolmen started a contest to determine which officer could drive the farthest outside the jurisdiction and return without being discovered. The record set was sixty miles—120 miles round trip. Although this is certainly not typical behavior, it illustrates the point that hour after hour goes by in most jurisdictions without any supervisory contact with patrolmen. Contact between a patrolman and his supervisor is usually initiated by a radio call setting up a particular place to meet. Hence, police officers do with their free time pretty much what they please. Unfortunately, that is all too often either idleness, girl watching, bar hopping, or looking after other nonpolice business.

Given the fact that the ways in which police patrolmen spend their time cannot be efficiently

supervised, then it is obvious that we must depend upon the internalization of certain values on their part if we are to expect their activities to be directed toward crime reduction efforts. The value system which we would desire is, of course, one which is characterized as "professional"; that is, the practitioners of a particular occupation of this nature are expected to be self-motivated. Unfortunately, most police agencies today are characterized by a "labor versus management" psychological attitude among patrolmen. Almost all patrolmen have worked at some other job before joining the police agency. In most cases, the type of employment which was held by those without a college background involved "working class" jobs. The behavioral norm which pervades such employment is that if one has some free time whenever a supervisor is not watching, it is appropriate to use that time to do anything but contribute to the goals of the "company." Anyone who does otherwise is regarded as a rate buster. Whenever we recruit police patrolmen from these ranks, we should expect precisely what we get. If we are to expect self-motivated achievement from police personnel, then we must draw those personnel from an employment pool which does not perceive the goals of management as existing only to be subverted whenever it is possible to do so.

Better motivated, and hence inherently more productive personnel is, then, one of the primary rationales which can be offered for educational upgrading. A combination of better motivation and greater ability to apply systems processes to the police function can logically be expected to result in better crime control. However, the direct control of criminal conduct is not the only rationale for educationally upgrading the police. Two other very good reasons, only indirectly related to crime control, also exist. The first involves police ability to perform their social service role; the second relates to the maintenance of democratic standards in the American police service. Each will be discussed in turn.

C. The Police Role: Diversity as Descriptor

Few people in American society really understand what constitutes the urban police function. The media depict the police exclusively as crime fighters. The crime fighting image presented takes two extremes, one characterization typifying the police officer as having the cunning of Sherlock Holmes and bravado of Matt Dillon, while at the other extreme the image presented is a bumbling idiot always needing the help of a private investigator. In reality, the vast majority of urban police officers are not anything akin to crime fighters. Specific assignments which involve only the control of criminal conduct exist only in special tactical units or investigative bureaus, and then within certain carefully defined bounds.

A second misconceived image of the police results from the traffic patrol function assigned to law enforcement. Most of the public's contact with police officers is generally limited to traffic-related incidents. Unfortunately such contact fosters a perception of the police role which is unduly simplistic. Traffic law enforcement involves few skills beyond alert observation. The function is regarded as an onerous chore by most police officers, the motivational force for vigorously performing the function characterized by the phrase "a ticket a day keeps the sergeant away." Yet, outside of "misinformation" presented through the media, the traffic enforcement function is all the general public ever sees of the police role.

The police task is far more complex and diverse than is popularly conceived. The American Bar Association comments that "The police should be recognized as having complex and multiple tasks to perform in addition to identifying and apprehending persons committing serious criminal offenses." [1] The diversity of the task is best illustrated by examining calls for service made to the police. Table 1 illustrates the nature of such requests for service in a medium-sized municipal jurisdiction. Note that only 10 percent of the requests for service involve control of criminal behavior per se. A large number, 30 percent, involved the management of disputes which sometimes include behavior defined as criminal. However, seldom in these situations is the sanction of arrest appropriate resolution. The remainder of the calls are requests for the management of noncriminal situations of some kind.

Of course, not all of a patrolman's time is spent answering calls for service. If patrol and observation are conceived of as primarily a crime control function, then the police role involves greater emphasis on enforcement of the criminal code than inferences based solely on calls for service. The often-heard claim that only 10 percent of police work involves criminal conduct is therefore inaccurate. However, in most communities the vast major-

[1] American Bar Association, *The Urban Police Function*, op. cit., p. 7.

ity of patrolmen are assigned to motorized patrol, and in this instance, crime control, even broadly defined, still occupies less than half of a police officer's time.

It has been observed that diversity in the police task is not a new phenomenon; the function of the police has always been more accurately described as "maintenance of order" rather than "crime control." [2] It is clear, however, that urbanization has intensified and complicated the order maintenance function of the police. The Education and Training Task Force of the Police Foundation commented upon the change in the police role which has resulted from urbanization:

> There has been so vast an expansion in demands made on the police that the police really have become a different institution. In the past, only a select group of people were ever in need of police help—that is, those people who really had no place else to turn. Urban life as we know it is so generally precarious that none of us can count ourselves safe, and all of us may at some time or another have to invoke the policeman's help in a striking variety of problems. Thus, a different kind of person is required to meet the needs of the bona-fide members of society.[3]

James Q. Wilson points out that understanding the order-maintenance function of the police as it contrasts to their law enforcement function is fundamental to understanding the police role.[4]

Order maintenance is generally described as the "management of conflict situations to bring about consensual resolution." In urban areas the lower socio-economic strata have come to depend upon the police to manage a wide variety of conflict situations. The police "perform the functions of family counselors, obstetricians, agents of socialization for potential delinquents, and myriad roles associated in other socio-economic strata with the family or other more specialized agencies of social control." [5]

The term "order maintenance" is used by numerous authors synonymously with the terms "service function" and "social work funtcion" of the police. Utilization of the term as synonymous to "social work function," however, creates considerable confusion. The term "order maintenance" is better used with a meaning synonymous to "situational management." Conceived of in this manner, order maintenance becomes the *raison d'etre* of the police, while law enforcement and social work are the means to effect this purpose. This brings us to an important conceptual point—law enforcement

Table 1.—CITIZEN COMPLAINTS RADIOED TO PATROL VEHICLES—SYRACUSE POLICE DEPARTMENT, JUNE 3–9, 1966

(BASED ON A ONE-FIFTH SAMPLE OF A WEEK'S CALLS)

Calls	Number in Sample	Full Count (Sample multiplied by 5)	Percent
Information gathering	69	345	22.1
Book and check			
Get a report			
Service	117	585	37.5
Accidents, illnesses, ambulance calls			
Animals			
Assist a person			
Drunk person			
Escort vehicle			
Fire, power line or tree down			
Lost or found person or property			
Property damage			
Order maintenance	94	470	30.1
Gang disturbance			
Family trouble			
Assault, fight			
Investigation			
Neighbor trouble			
Law enforcement	32	160	10.3
Burglary in progress			
Check a car			
Open door, window			
Prowler			
Make an arrest			
Totals	312	1,560	100.0

SOURCE: James Q. Wilson, *Varieties of Police Behavior* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968), p. 18.

[2] Victor G. Strecher, *The Environment of Law Enforcement* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1971), p. 96: "From the historical accounts of policing in North America, it may be concluded that there has never really been a progression away from crime fighting and toward general service functions, as police folklore would have it. From the earliest days, it is clear, those appointed to law enforcement positions were charged with solving all of the safety and security problems of the community as well as with enforcing laws."

[3] Police Foundation, "Education and Training Task Force Report," op. cit., p. 30.

[4] James Q. Wilson, "What Makes a Better Policeman?" *Atlantic*, 223 (March 1969), p. 131.

[5] John McNamara, "Uncertainties in Police Work: The Relevance of Police Recruits' Backgrounds and Training," in David Bordua, ed., *The Police: Six Sociological Essays* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), p. 164.

and social work are not separate functions of the police; they are instead alternative techniques utilized to resolve conflict situations. Furthermore, the resolution of conflict situations does not involve employing one technique or the other, but rather the employment of both techniques concurrently with an emphasis on one versus the other as the situation demands. This fact was emphasized by Bittner in a study of police-community interaction in a "skid-row" area: ". . . The roles of the 'law officer' and of the 'peace officer' are enacted by the same person and thus are contiguous." [6]

Thus, the "true" role of the police officer does not consist either of law enforcement or social work, but rather order maintenance—defined as the management of conflict situations. However, it must be realized that the two techniques utilized to perform the function of order maintenance, law enforcement and social work, involve fundamentally conflicting value systems. Associated with the term *social work* are descriptors such as help, counsel, and facilitate. In contrast, associated with the term *law enforcement* are descriptors such as control, restrain, and restrict. The difficulty of maintaining a congruent self-image while employing both kinds of techniques is immense. Numerous studies have documented the fact that most police officers resolve the conflict by rejecting a social work self-image and conceiving of themselves exclusively as crime fighters. Whenever this occurs, the ability of a police officer to resolve conflict situations without invoking the criminal process, i.e., arrest, is greatly diminished.

D. Educational Upgrading: A Second Rationale

The police role, then, is diverse and complex, involving the simultaneous utilization of two contradictory philosophic orientations. The question which follows is: How can we improve the ability of the police officer to cope with the role conflict thus created, in order to enable him to perform the task of order maintenance without utilizing repressive techniques?

It is obvious that police training is not the answer. Police training programs have traditionally emphasized the more mechanical aspects of the law enforcement task. These programs, of necessity, deal with subjects such as preservation of crime scenes, proper collection of evidence, motor vehicle codes, and physical and firearms training. Police training academies have neither the time nor the ability to educate officers to deal with social conflict or understand human behavior. Robert E. McCann, Director of Training for the Chicago Police Department, comments that "the training programs we have established teach a man how to behave for the twenty percent of the time that he has to operate in a crime situation; and eighty percent of his time we scarcely touch as far as training is concerned." [7]

Peter P. Lejins has documented the means by which an educational background would enhance a police officer's ability to handle a number of social conflict circumstances. The explanation is rather lengthy, but is stated so well that it is very difficult to paraphrase:

> 1. Among the frequent disturbances to which a policeman is called are family conflicts, which often reach the level of disturbances of the peace, fights, assault and manslaughter. It stands to reason that an officer who has been exposed to some educational experience in the area of family relationships, the types of family conflict and the way they run their course, would approach this type of disturbance with a much broader and sounder perspective than someone equipped with many conventional folklore stereotypes permeated by punitive, disciplinary or ridiculing impulses. . . .
>
> 2. An even more obvious example is a disturbance anchored in the area of ethnic relations and ethnic tensions. Exposure to the university-level study of ethnic relations, contributing an historical and broader perspective . . . again suggests itself, and again one would expect that such study would tend to diminish the effect of prejudice, racial and ethnic stereotypes, erroneous and often exaggerated, rumors, etc. . . .
>
> 3. Still another example is the handling of disturbances for which mentally abnormal people are responsible. The use of conventional and straight-forward evaluations of behavior as being or not being a violation of law, and the use of conventional law enforcement steps to arrest the ongoing violation and secure the violator for action of the criminal justice system, would often cause unnecessary harm to the perpetrator, who is viewed by contemporary society as a sick person, and to the community itself, by injecting what basically amounts to an improper solution of the problem. . . .

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[6] Egon Bittner, "The Police on Skid-Row," in Richard Quinney, ed., *Crime and Justice in Society* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1969), p. 192.

[7] Selected presentations from the 1970 National Conference on Law Enforcement Education, *Proceedings of a Symposium Held at Jacksonville, Florida, February 1–3, 1970* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 15.

4. Whatever has been said with regard to the above three categories of disturbances could be properly restated with regard to the handling of drunks and drug addicts. . . .

5. And finally, let us take the so-called area of civil rights and contemporary struggles for them, which often express themselves in disturbances and so-called riots. Here again the quick and sharp discernment between permissible actions in terms of freedom of speech, and freedom of demonstration, and actions that violate the individual rights of others and have all the characteristics of plain criminal acts, presupposes alert and sophisticated individuals. Persons without any higher education, acquired either in their college-age period or subsequently by means of adult education and in-service training, can hardly be cast in the role of the wise law enforcement officer who manages to lessen the tensions between ideologically antagonistic mobs, protects the rights of innocent bystanders and would-be victims, and contains the amount of violence. . . .[8]

It is true that in many police agencies officers perform numerous mundane tasks such as directing traffic, issuing parking tickets, conducting permit inspections, and driving tow trucks. Performance of such tasks obviously does not require collegiate training. However, such routine tasks are rapidly being turned over to civilian employees and other governmental agencies. Thus, "police officers are left with their more essential task which includes social control in a period of increasing social turmoil, preservation of our constitutional guarantees, and exercise of the broadest range of discretion—sometimes involving life and death decisions—of any government service." [9] The Education and Training Task Force of the Police Foundation commented that "The job defining that delicate balance between liberty and order, of applying wisdom, of being flexible, of using discretion and, most particularly, of seeing the mundane and trivial in a broader legal and moral context is an intellectually and psychologically awesome one." [10] If the tasks performed by the police are those normally performed by professionals, and if professionals are normally prepared for the role they fulfill by an academic program of study, then so ought the police be prepared.

Thus, it is the nature of the police function as it relates to conflict resolution which is the substance of the second rationale for educationally upgrading the police. Conflict resolution—or order maintenance—in an urban society involves the concurrent employment of both social work and law enforcement techniques. Whether or not these techniques are employed at the appropriate time and in an appropriate manner means the difference between successful and unsuccessful resolution of conflict. Unsuccessful resolution of conflict extols a human cost whether or not criminal behavior eventually results.

The crime-fighting self-concept greatly inhibits the ability of a police officer to successfully resolve a situation which is more appropriately handled by social counseling techniques. The fact that college-educated individuals are more able to cope with role conflict, and the fact that a college education provides one with a social perspective more conducive to abilities related to social counseling, is the basis for a second rationale for educational upgrading.

E. The Police Role: Immense Discretion

Few individuals fully comprehend the implications of the power that the police possess in their exercise of discretion to arrest. Although the police are formally organized as a part of the criminal justice system only to maintain public order and identify probable perpetrators of crime, it is apparent that they are actually involved in enacting justice by deciding when and where to invoke the sanction of arrest.[11] Arrest is a powerful weapon. In many, if not most cases, it is a form of punishment in and of itself, even though it is formally conceived of as merely the beginning of the criminal justice process. The overwhelming majority of criminal cases, most studies put the figure near 95 percent, are disposed of by guilty pleas. Judicial discretion in relation to determination of guilt is thus much more limited than popularly thought. In a Chicago study of delinquency processing, "it was established that out of 500 possible arrest situations the police had

[8] Peter P. Lejins, *Introducing a Law Enforcement Curriculum at a State University*, a report of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970), pp. 13–16.

[9] National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, *Report on the Police*, op. cit., p. 370.

[10] Police Foundation, "Education and Training Task Force Report," op. cit., p. 31.

[11] Albert J. Reiss, Jr., and David Bordua, "Environment and Organization: A Perspective on the Police," in David Bordua, ed., *The Police: Six Sociological Essays* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), p. 32.

arrested 100 persons and finally presented a total of 40 for court action." [12]

It is important to emphasize that "mere" arrest, whether conviction follows or not, is sufficient to label an individual "criminal." This is particularly true in the case of juveniles. It is widely recognized that the appropriateness of labeling a juvenile as "delinquent" has serious implications for the individual's future behavior. In this regard, police discretionary authority is immense. Although perhaps the same degree of discretion is not exercised with regard to adults, nevertheless, the discretion exercised in either case is substantial. It has been pointed out that the police make far more discretionary determinations than any other class of governmental administrators. The amount of governmental activity handled by the police, measured by man-hours, is more than forty times as much as the amount of governmental activity through the independent federal regulatory agencies.[13]

Paradoxically, however, police discretionary power is not generally acknowledged. Despite extensive policy making by the police, there is an assumption by the community that the police do not, or at least ought not, make policy. Furthermore, for a number of political reasons the police themselves do not generally acknowledge policy-making responsibility. There are a number of reasons why neither the community nor the police themselves acknowledge police discretionary power. LaFave documented several of the reasons.[14] First of all, the substantive criminal law implies an absolute mandate. There is an assumption that the rule of law or principle of legality demands that wherever and whenever a transgression of the substantive criminal law occurs, impartiality demands that the transgressor be arrested regardless of circumstance. Second, acknowledgment of the extent of police discretion would admit to a violation of the principle of division of power among the three branches of government. Theoretically, administrative agencies are recognized as responsible for only executing policy. Recognition of the range of police discretionary power would have the appearance of condoning usurption of both legislative and judicial functions. Finally, there is the widespread myth that the prosecutor, an elected official, exercises whatever discretion is necessary at the enforcement stage of the criminal justice process. In reality, it is pragmatically impossible for the prosecutor to control all police actions. Even if it were possible, attempts at such control, if resisted by the police, would be politically disastrous for the prosecutor.

Acknowledgment of police discretion should not be conceived as condoning complete police control over the decision to arrest. The police are not thought of as having discretion with respect to serious crimes that produce victims. No one would argue that circumstances could justify, for example, police failure to invoke an arrest in the case of a homicide. However, less than 10 percent of all arrests are made for any of the seven serious offenses that make up the FBI Crime Index.

In some cases a police officer for all practical purposes has no discretion. However, in numerically the vast majority of cases discretion is significant and almost entirely the individual police officer's. It is the policeman on the beat or in the patrol car who makes more decisions and exercises broader discretion affecting the daily lives of people, every day and to a greater extent, than a judge will ordinarily exercise in a week.[15] It is the police patrolman who is almost solely in charge of enforcing the laws that are the least precise, most ambiguous, or whose application is most sensitive to the availability of scarce resources and the policy of the police administrator.[16]

The delegation of discretion to the patrolman on the beat exists out of absolute necessity. First of all, the exercise of discretion in interpreting the substantive criminal law is necessary because no legislature and no police administrator has succeeded in formulating a criminal code or policy manual which clearly defines all conduct intended to be made criminal and which clearly excludes all other conduct. Individual circumstances sometimes make even an arrest for certain behavior excessive punishment.[17] Furthermore, it is fairly obvious that there are insufficient financial resources to make possible "complete" enforcement of all law, all of the time. For instance, society obviously wants the

[12] Arthur Niederhoffer and Abraham S. Blumberg. *The Ambivalent Force: Perspectives on the Police* (Waltham, Massachusetts: Xerox Publishing, 1970), p. 4.

[13] Kenneth C. Davis. *Handbook on Administrative Law* (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing, 1951), p. 222.

[14] Wayne R. LaFave, "Police Discretion," in Richard Quinney, ed., *Crime and Justice in Society* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1969), pp. 110–112.

[15] Chief Justice Warren E. Burger as quoted in *The Urban Police Function*, op. cit., p. 2.

[16] James Q. Wilson, *Varieties of Police Behavior*, op. cit., p. 8.

[17] LaFave, op. cit., pp. 114, 116.

flow of narcotic drugs controlled. However, no one desires that homicides go uninvestigated while the police are attempting to arrest heroin dealers. Decisions must be made regarding levels of enforcement, i.e., what resources will be devoted to enforcement of particular types and classes of criminal conduct to the exclusion of other enforcement activity.

Police discretion is paradoxical. On the one hand, it appears to flout legal commands—certain laws are ignored either in individual instances or as departmental enforcement policy. Yet discretion is necessary because of limited police resources, the ambiguity and breadth of criminal statutes, and informal expectations of legislatures and the often conflicting demands of the public.[18]

F. Educational Upgrading: A Third Rationale

It is necessary that police discretion be acknowledged not only because of the actual desirability of delegating certain discretion to the police, but also because even where there is a desire to exercise absolute control over certain police actions, doing the same has proven to be impossible. This is best illustrated by judicial attempts to control police violations of due process. There is a fundamental conflict between due process and crime control. Observance of due process necessarily results in less effective and efficient enforcement of criminal statutes. Police zealousness to effectively enforce the law thus inevitably leads to violations of due process. Theoretically, the judiciary ensures that constitutional guarantees are observed by excluding evidence introduced into court obtained by violation of due process. From the available evidence, however, it seems doubtful that police violations of due process can be effectively sanctioned by the exclusionary rule.[19] The reach of the courtroom does not extend to a skid-row alley at 3:00 a.m. If the police see it to their best interest, they will simply disregard due process mandates, while testifying in court that such mandates were observed. It has been observed that court strictures "more likely than compelling the police to abide by the norms of due process, . . . will persuade him to evade these norms more adroitly."[20]

There is no simple answer to making the police accountable in a democratic society. Constant direct supervision of the police is obviously not possible. Likewise, police-sponsored training is not likely to inculcate democratic value systems. In John McNamara's study of the New York City Police Training Academy, it was found that police training methodologies resembled much closer a military training model than preparation for the exercise of discretion:

> Perhaps our most significant inference from the analysis of the data on the New York Police Department is that a training program for police recruits faces two major dilemmas in preparing recruits for their later duties in the field. The first involves the question of whether to emphasize training strategies aimed at the development of self-directed and autonomous personnel or to emphasize strategies aimed at developing personnel over whom the organization can easily exercise control. It appears that the second strategy is the one most often emphasized.[21]

Prescriptive training fails to recognize the autonomous nature of the police task. Police officers in the daily routine of keeping the peace do not function as members of a highly coordinated military unit, despite the military overtones of police decorum. Once the daily line-up and inspection is finished all resemblances to a military operation cease. The highly structured bureaucratic organization of which the police officer is a part does not follow him onto the street. It is the individual officer, working autonomously, who must make the kinds of discretionary judgments which mean the difference between fair or biased enforcement of the law. There are such a multitude of situations which are confronted, each with individual circumstances, that there exists no way to issue written policy directives which will provide definitive guidance in every kind of circumstance. A police officer must perform instinctively on his own initiative. The instantaneous judgments he makes are significant: to shoot or to hold fire, to arrest or desist, to use force or friendly persuasion, to act or not to act.[22]

The questions which are left to individual police officers to decide are critical to the quality of justice in our society. It is largely on the streets where the

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[18] National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, *Report on the Police*, op. cit., p. 22.

[19] William J. Chambliss and Robert B. Seidman, *Law, Order, and Power* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing, 1971), p. 383.

[20] Ibid., p. 379.

[21] McNamara, "Uncertainties in Police Work," op. cit., p. 251.

[22] William W. Turner, *The Police Establishment* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1968), p. 22.

questions of how much pluralism and diversity our society will tolerate are answered. The judgments made regarding these questions are enforced by an incredible range of techniques, from friendly persuasion to summary execution. [23]

The kind of training which is necessary to produce individuals capable of making such judgments in a manner consistent with democratic philosophy cannot be provided by police training academies. The kind of training necessary to create tolerant, humane, and skilled professionals is characterized by the word "education."

The structures of professions typically arise because it is realized that minimal standards of law as they apply to the profession in question are inadequate.[24] Whenever supervision is not possible, then we depend upon internalization of codes of conduct to protect society. In this case we are concerned with a standard of conduct that will contain violations of constitutional guarantees of due process within certain bounds.[25] Such a professional code of conduct is intrinsically related to education:

> With the possible exception of recruitment, nothing is more vital to the creation of the democratic policeman than education. As noted earlier, democratic attidues and patterns of behavior increase markedly with education. Thus, the educated policeman is more likely to be the democratic policeman.[26]

The use of police discretionary power within the

[23] Police Foundation, "Education and Training Task Force Report," op. cit., p. 33.

[24] James F. Ahern, *Police in Trouble* (New York: Hawthorn Books, 1972), p. 179.

[25] The phrase "within certain bounds" is purposefully included. The basic conflict between enforcement efficiency and due process will inevitably result in limited violations of due process, regardless of police educational level. Our concern is that these do not become routinized or so flagrant that democratic government is threatened.

[26] George Berkley, *The Democratic Policeman* (Boston: The Beacon Press, 1969), p. 74.

restraining intent of the Bill of Rights is a delicate, precarious, and comprehensive intellectual task. It doesn't seem logical that this function should be left in the hands of individuals whose observation of this world is informed by any less than a college education.[27] We have gradually come to the realization that "police decisions not to invoke the criminal process determine the outer limits of law enforcement." [28] This appears to be the case for both the substantive and procedural criminal law. Since the police cannot be policed, they must police themselves. This is the third and best rationale for educationally upgrading America's police.

G. Summary

There are three distinct rationales for educationally upgrading America's police. The first of these relates to improving the effectiveness of the police in performing their crime control function, through better motivation and greater ability to apply systems and technology. The second relates to the effectiveness with which the police are able to perform their "order maintenace" function, through more balanced use of social counseling and law enforcement techniques. The third relates to ensuring proper exercise of police discretionary power.

It should be pointed out that these rationales, although distinctive, are not mutually exclusive. One is certainly justified in positing that better use of social counseling will ultimately mean less crime, or that maintenance of democratic values in the American police service is ultimately related to its ability to control crime. Similarly, if the police are unable to control crime, it is highly unlikely that they can be expected to adequately perform their social service role, and perhaps even less likely that they will maintain a democratic value system. The synergism of the three issues strengthens even further the argument for higher educational standards.

[27] Police Foundation, op. cit., p. 1.

[28] Joseph Goldstein, "Police Discretion Not to Invoke the Criminal Process," *Yale Law Journal*, 69 (1960), p. 543.

CHAPTER III. POLICE EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

A. Ascertaining Progress to Date

Efforts to ascertain the educational levels of police officers have been sporadic and unsystematically conducted. Heretofore, data have been either limited to a single agency (most notably the New York City Police Department) or incidental to obtaining information for some other purpose.

In common with the employment market at large, police service occupied relatively few college graduates prior to the 1930's. Exceptions to this general condition did exist in Berkeley, California, where a unique relationship between police and the University of California was cultivated by August Vollmer, and during the depression when otherwise unemployed or low-paid college graduates applied for police employment.[1] By June 1940, of the 300 recruits appointed to the New York City Police Department more than half held college degrees.[2] However, as general economic conditions improved during and after the Second World War, that statistic depreciated dramatically.[3] By 1950 a special report released as part of the Census indicated the median of school years completed by all officers in the United States as 11.7. Disaggregation of the data revealed that 53 percent had not completed high school, 34 percent were high school graduates, 9 percent had one to three years of college, and 3 percent had four or more years of college.[4]

The next available information comes from data gathered a decade later in Portland, Oregon. During the period 1959–1962, of 116 men appointed to the Portland, Oregon, Police Department, no more than 3 percent were college graduates.[5]

Information on police education levels in 1964 was obtained from a nationwide sample taken by O'Connor and Watson as part of a study of the police role in juvenile delinquency and crime. These data, based upon responses from 6,330 police officers, indicate 30 percent having completed some college, while 7 percent possessed one or more degrees.[6] Two facts should be particularly noted regarding these data. First, the Pacific states reported much higher educational levels. This is due to the early development of academic programs in law enforcement in California. Secondly, the term *degree* as utilized by Nelson and O'Connor included both associate and baccalaureate attainment. The percentage reported in that category therefore does not necessarily indicate completion of four or more years of college.

In 1965, Michigan State University's Institute for Community Development and School of Police Administration and Public Safety (now School of Criminal Justice) undertook an extensive study of police training needs in the Detroit Metropolitan region. The study included a survey of police training and educational levels. The information gathered regarding educational levels indicated 25 percent having completed some college, with 3 percent having four or more years completed.[7]

The next measurement of police educational levels occurred in 1968, studies completed during

[1] McNamara, op. cit., p. 166.

[2] Arthur Niederhoffer, *Behind the Shield: The Police in Urban Society* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1967), p. 17. Niederhoffer notes that: "These middle-class college men formed the nucleus of the future elite group; before long they began to try to raise the prestige of the police occupation to match their own middle-class ideologies and attainments; to transform it into a profession."

[3] McNamara, loc. cit.

[4] 1950 United States Census of Population, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census Special Report, P.E., Table II, pp. 81–120 and No. 18, Table 10, pp. 18–113, as quoted in William J. Yankee, "A Description and Evaluation of the Associate Degree Law Enforcement Curricula in the Public Community and Junior Colleges of Michigan" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970), p. 6.

[5] Niederhoffer, op. cit., p. 40.

[6] George W. O'Connor and Nelson A. Watson, *Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime: The Police Role* (Gaithersburg, Maryland: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1964), p. 79.

[7] Michigan State University Institute for Community Development, "Police Training in the Detroit Metropolitan Region: Recommendations for a Regional Approach" (Detroit: The Metropolitan Fund, 1966), p. 69.

that year including data pertaining to the amount of college completed by police officers. In the state of Ohio, it was reported that 23 percent of the police officers in four cities above 100,000 in population had some college credit, and 1.9 percent of them had college degrees (the term *degree* not specifically defined). In 163 cities in Ohio below 100,000 in population, 11.3 percent of the police officers had attended college, while 1 percent had college degrees. In summary, 1.4 percent or 66 of the 4,846 police officers in Ohio had actual college degrees, and 15.1 percent had attended college.[8]

A study of role concepts of police recruits conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police in 1968 included gathering data on the educational levels of police recruits in four cities: Baltimore, Cincinnati, Columbus, and Indianapolis. The agencies selected for study were chosen as progressive urban police departments with "outstanding leadership, a sound organizational structure, good personnel training practices, and realistic standards of police performance." Thirty-two percent of the recruits had some college, while 4 percent possessed a baccalaureate degree.[9]

In another IACP survey conducted in 1968, unpublished data indicated that of 4,672 officers in fifty states, some 5 percent were college graduates.[10] In that same year, it was reported that 7.8 percent of the officers in the San Francisco Police Department had college degrees.[11] In the first six months of 1969, of 1,196 New York City Police Department recruits, 18.7 percent had completed some college study, 1.2 percent having obtained associate degrees, 1 percent bachelors' degrees, and .1 percent (one individual) the master's degree.[12]

The last reported measure of police college education levels was obtained from data gathered between Janaury and September of 1971 in Michigan. Of 1133 officers employed in Michigan during that period, some 27 percent had some college background, while an additional 10 percent had completed four or more years of college.[13]

Table 2 summarizes the information gathered to date regarding police college educational levels.

B. Purpose of the Study

Although we know that as a result of the Law Enforcement Education Program, as well as other efforts, a significant impact is being made on upgrading police educational standards, specific data regarding that impact have heretofore been lacking. The purpose of the research reported in this monograph is to provide information on the current educational levels of police recruits as well as related information pertaining to the criteria employed by college-educated personnel in selecting a particular agency. Such information is useful in several respects to policy decisions regarding the allocation of resources for the educational upgrading effort. Specifically, the information is applicable to policy decisions regarding the Law Enforcement Education Program, implementation of police cadet programs, implementation of agency reward programs for completed education, agency-recruitment efforts, and the development of academic programs in law enforcement or criminal justice.

Whether or not current efforts to upgrade the quality of police personnel are adequate is undecided. LEEP appropriations have been leveled at approximately $40,000,000 per year, while requests from institutions for funds far exceed this figure.[14] This level of effort has been criticized as inadequate:

> The priorities expressed in the omnibus crime bill of 1968 reflect the traditional faith in equipment and technology as the means to affect crime statistics. The bill creates unrealistic expectations and accentuates many of the pressures which already limit police effectiveness. It may actually divert attention from the central problems of police personnel and encourage the tendencies of local departments to manipulate statistics, assign arrest quotas, buy more shiny patrol cars, and otherwise engage in image-building to justify further federal funds.[15]

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[8] Kent State University Institute of Government Research and Service, "Police Education and Training in Ohio" (unpublished report to the Ohio Board of Regents, 1968), pp. 22–23.

[9] James W. Sterling, *Changes in Role Concepts of Police Officers* (Gaithersburg, Maryland: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1972), p. 37.

[10] Nelson A. Watson of the IACP as quoted in Charles B. Saunders, Jr., *Upgrading the American Police* (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1970), p. 80.

[11] Gordon Misner as quoted in George Berkley, *The Democratic Policeman*, op. cit., p. 87.

[12] George P. McManus and others, *Police Training and Performance Study*, a report of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 37.

[13] William C. Nash, "A Study of the Employment Patterns of College Educated Officers in Michigan Police Agencies" (unpublished research paper, Michigan State University, 1972), pp. 7–11. (Mimeographed.)

[14] At the time of this writing, consideration is even being given to reducing this level of funding for fiscal '76 to $23,000,000.

[15] Saunders, op. cit.

Table 2.—SUMMARY OF PRIOR STUDIES OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATION OF POLICE.

Year	Location	Population	% With Some College	% With Baccalaureate Degree
1950	National	All Personnel	12	3
1960	Portland	Recruits	—	3
1964	National	All Personnel	30	—
1965	Detroit	All Personnel	25	3
1968	Ohio	All Personnel	16	2
1968	Baltimore, Cincinnati, Columbus, Indianapolis	Recruits	32	4
1968	National	All Personnel	—	5
1968	San Francisco	All Personnel	—	8
1969	New York City	Recruits	19	1
1971	Michigan	Recruits	37	10

Note: With Some College includes the percentage with a baccalaureate degree.

The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration has been specifically criticized for failing to provide adequate support to expand faculty resources of academic programs. Almost all aid has been in the form of student support. Many educators feel that this condition fosters development of "fly by night" programs which will collapse as soon as federal support is withdrawn.

Law enforcement agencies have been even more severely attacked for inadequate efforts to attract college personnel. It should be noted that only a handful of agencies actually do recruit on college campuses, and the implementation of reward programs for completed education has often been more the result of outside prodding than self-initiated agency action.

The issues addressed in this study all relate to an assessment of the aggregate adequacy of current efforts to educationally upgrade the police. The scope of the study does not, of course, allow definitive conclusions to be drawn with regard to each type of effort enumerated. However, the information provided contributes to that goal.

Eight distinctive issues are addressed by this research. These are:

1. The percentage of individuals with a collegiate background now entering the police service.
2. The employment patterns of police recruits with a collegiate background by size and type of agency.
3. The contribution of the Law Enforcement Education Program to raising the educational level of police recruits.
4. The contribution of police cadet programs to raising the educational level of police recruits.
5. The contribution of agency reward programs for completed college education to raising the educational level of police recruits.
6. The relative importance of agency prestige, career and promotion opportunities, salary, nature of jurisdiction, recruitment efforts, and availability of employment in the selection of a particular agency by collegiate recruits.
7. The influence of educational level upon anticipated tenure in both present employing agencies and the criminal justice field.
8. The contribution of academic programs in law enforcement/criminal justice to raising the educational level of police recruits.

C. Research Methodology

In order to gather data relevant to each of these issues, it was necesssary to survey a significant sampling of police recruits currently entering the service to determine their educational backgrounds and employment characteristics. As a means to accomplish the compilation of such a sample while recognizing pragmatic limitations, a methodology was selected based upon the designation of four representative states—California, Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas. The designation of these particular states is based upon the rationale developed for their inclusion in the Project STAR study.[16] Specifically, they are representative of the nation in terms of geography, economic conditions, and population

[16] Project STAR is an acronym for Systems Training Analysis Requirements. STAR is a five-year, three million dollar project designed to determine the precise role behavior required of operative level positions in the criminal justice system. The project is coordinated by the Systems Development Corporation and funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.

composition. Further, together the personnel of their criminal justice systems comprise 24 percent of the total criminal justice system population of the country.

Each of these four states has an established commission on police officer standards and training. These agencies maintain records of police officers trained in recruit academies within the respective states. The specific organizational titles and addresses of these agencies are:

California
Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training
7100 Bowling Drive, Suite 250
Sacramento, California 95823

Michigan
Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council
1331 E. Grand River Avenue
East Lansing, Michigan 48823

New Jersey
Department of Law and Public Safety
Police Training Commission
1100 Raymond Boulevard
Newark, New Jersey 07102

Texas
Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education
502-E Sam Houston Building
Austin, Texas 78701

From the records of these agencies, data were compiled regarding the names, educational levels, and employing agencies of newly hired police personnel. A period of twelve months from which it was feasible to gather information from the records was utilized, July 1, 1972, to June 31, 1973. It should be noted that the records of the training commissions actually indicated the names of officers *trained* in basic recruit schools during that period. However, the variation between those trained during the period and those employed during the period is slight, for police officers in each of these states are compelled by state law to be trained either immediately upon employment or within six months of employment. In practice, even where a grace period of six months is allowed by law, most officers are sent immediately to a training academy. For all practical purposes, then, the records of the training commissions indicate officers employed during the period in question.

Once the data describing the names, educational level, and agency of employment of all newly hired police officers in these states were obtained, a stratified sample of those personnel having completed various increments of education was selected to receive a mailed questionnaire. The questionnaire is included as Appendix B. The purpose of the questionnaire was to determine: first, certain descriptive information regarding the characteristics of the recruits which was unavailable from the training commissions (e.g., whether they had prior police experience, the proximity of their employing agency to their home town, whether they had received LEEP assistance, whether they had participated in a police cadet program); and, second, to determine from the responses to certain attitudinal questions the factors that influenced the recruits' decision to seek employment with particular agencies.

The California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training did not maintan data regarding the educational level of police officers trained in that state. Therefore, a questionnaire was mailed to a random sample of 33-1/3 percent of the officers trained in that state during the period July 1, 1972, to June 31, 1973. Information regarding educational levels was available from the records of the other three states. The primary purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding the attitude of college-educated personnel. Therefore, questionnaires in Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas were mailed to all personnel who had completed one or more years of college. A random sample of officers completing less than one year of college in these states was also selected to receive the questionnaire. A total of 2,736 questionnaires was distributed; 101 were returned due to unknown address, leaving a total possible responding population of 2,635 individuals. The return of 1,941 questionnaires represents a response rate of 74 percent.

In this study the category "less than one year of college" was used to include individuals reporting a level of education of either high school, high school equivalency, or less than thirty semester units of college. It was decided to regard those with less than thirty semester units of college as "non-collegiate" in order to eliminate the possibility of misinterpretation of the data. Many authors have reported a certain percentage of police officers or police recruits as having "a college background" or "some college," and included within such a definition individuals who may have completed one college course. Such a reporting technique has the effect of inflating reported educational levels of police officers. Completion of a college course or two is by no means the equivalent of having a "college education" or a "college background." Furthermore, most police recruit academies are now

conducted under the auspices of a college or university, with some college credit generally awarded for the completion of recruit training. Officers who therefore have completed no more education than high school and their police recruit training will report "some college" when queried regarding their level of education. Thus the term "some college" or "college background" as used in this study designates those individuals who have completed thirty or more semester units of college work. It should be noted that the questionnaire allowed individuals to designate their educational level at one of five levels: high school, less than one year of college, one but less than two years of college, two but less than four years of college, four or more years of college. The differentiation between high school and less than one year of college was done on the questionnaire in order to avoid confusion for respondents.

In summary, then, the questionnaire was distributed to a stratified sample of all police recruits in the United States employed between July 1, 1972, and June 31, 1973. The sample includes all police recruits employed during that period with one or more years of college in Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas, and a randomly drawn sample of all recruits in the state of California. The questionnaire was also distributed to a random sample of those with less than one year of college employed in Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas during the period indicated.

Comment has already been made regarding the demographic representativeness of the four states selected for inclusion in the study. However, the state of California is not representative in terms of police educational levels. Criminal justice education has developed in California earlier and to a much greater extent than in other parts of the nation. Police educational levels and agency educational requirements have therefore been traditionally higher there than elsewhere. Careful consideration was given to this fact before retaining California in the study sample. However, it was decided to retain California in order to take advantage of the insights which might be gained by contrasting the influence of certain factors pertaining to the employment of collegiate personnel in that state with the influence of these factors in the other three states. Care has been taken to analyze date carefully where the inflated character of California educational levels might affect the conclusions reached.

In examining the significance of a relationship between two variables, one of two analytic techniques is used. In determining the independence of two discrete random variables, analysis of contingency tables utilizing the chi square probability distribution is employed. Whenever the determination is one of testing the homogeneity of the rank order assigned certain factors by various categorizations of respondents, Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance by rank order is employed. The chi square probability distribution is applied in the Kruskal-Wallis analysis, with "k" degrees of freedom, where "k" equals the number of levels of the independent variable minus one. In all instances, probability is tested at the ninety-ninth percentile; that is, the null hypothesis is not rejected unless the probability of independence of the variables or homogeneity of mean rank order is less than .01.

D. Current Educational Levels of Police Recruits

Of primary importance in evaluating the impact of efforts to upgrade educational levels is a data base assessing the total impact of all programs to professionalize the police. One aspect of such a base should be information on the average educational levels of entering personnel in 1973 compared to 1975, compared to 1977, etc. An educational standard of either a required associate or baccalaureate degree has been recommended in a number of studies, but its feasibility cannot be assessed without data indicative of the educational status of entering personnel.

The data obtained regarding police educational levels are presented in Table 3. In Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas, 37 percent of current police recruits have "some college." In California, that figure is 73 percent.[17] As mentioned previously,

[17] With the exception of California, these data are based upon the records of the law enforcement training commissions rather than the responses to the mailed questionnaire. As mentioned earlier, the California law enforcement training commission did not maintain records of educational levels. Hence, the data for California in Table 3 are based upon responses to the mailed questionnaire sent to a random sample of California officers. The data from California are therefore not precisely accurate, since respondents might tend to exaggerate their level of education in reply to a mailed questionnaire. In order to check the degree to which this may have occurred in the California responses, a check was made of the responses of the Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas personnel on the questionnaire regarding educational level compared to the educational levels stipulated on the records of the training commissions from these states. Since there was less than a 2 percent difference in aggregate levels measured from these records as compared to aggregate levels reported on the questionnaire, the exaggeration of educational levels from California can be assumed to be very slight.

Table 3.—LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF POLICE RECRUITS, 1972–73

	Calif.		Mich.		N.J.		Texas		Nat'l Average (Mich., N.J., Texas Subtotal)*	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Completion of 4 or more years of college	145	22%	117	9%	73	11%	118	9%	308	10%
Completion of 2 but less than 4 years of college	283	42%	59	5%	142	22%	158	12%	359	11%
Completion of 1 but less than 2 years of college	124	19%	214	18%	138	22%	163	13%	515	16%
High school or less than 1 year of college	116	17%	890	68%	286	45%	840	66%	2016	63%

n = 3866

*For reasons enumerated elsewhere, police education levels in California have tended to be considerably higher than the rest of the nation. Hence, the Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas subtotal should be considered the "national average."

California was selected for inclusion in this study because it is representative of the country in terms of demographic characteristics, while at the same time not representative in terms of police educational standards. Due to a number of factors, law enforcement education developed in California much sooner and to a much greater extent than in any other state in the Union. Police educational levels are therefore considerably higher in California at the present time than in the rest of the country. California was purposely selected for inclusion in the study in order that a comparison could be made between educational levels there and elsewhere, and thus obtain data which can be employed for projective purposes. Information regarding police educational levels in California is useful for anticipating the impact of the development of law enforcement academic programs in other parts of the nation. The data in Table 3 pertaining to California are certainly encouraging in this regard. Note should particularly be made of the fact that nearly one-fourth of the California recruits now entering the police service have a baccalaureate degree.

The situation in the remainder of the nation is likewise encouraging as projected from the data from Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas. When contrasted with earlier data, these data indicated that educational levels are rising. For instance, a study in Ohio in 1968 indicated that only 2 percent of the personnel there had four or more years of college; a study the same year of recruit educational levels in Baltimore, Cincinnati, Columbus, and Indianapolis indicated that some 4 percent of the recruits had four or more years of college. That percentage has doubled in four years, data in Table 3 indicating 10 percent of the recruits in Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas have now completed four or more years of college. The impact of efforts to educationally upgrade the police has brought current police educational levels to a transitory stage between a high school and college standard.

Although a level of education of four or more years of college is generally regarded as synonymous to completion of a baccalaureate degree, it was nevertheless thought prudent to examine baccalaureate degree attainment separately. In addition, the greatest number of academic degree programs in law enforcement are located in community colleges, and hence are associated degree-granting programs. The number of individuals obtaining associate degrees is therefore also a statistic of interest. The data obtained regarding degrees received by police recruits are presented in Table 4.

Table 4.—ACADEMIC DEGREES RECEIVED BY POLICE RECRUITS, 1972–73

	Number	Percent
Graduate/Professional	19	.5%
Baccalaureate	401	10%
Associate	393	10%
None	3053	80%

A total of 420 respondents indicate receiving either a baccalaureate or professional degree, as compared to 453 individuals indicating completion of four or more years of college. Some 393 individuals indicate attainment of an associate degree. This compares to a total of 642 individuals who indicate

completion of two but less than four years of college. Associate degree programs are thus reasonably popular as specific courses of study among collegiate police recruits. It should be noted, however, that of the 393 individuals reporting attainment of the associate degree, 211 were from the state of California, reflecting the particular popularity of associate degree law enforcement programs in that state.

E. Employment Patterns of Police Recruits With a Collegiate Background

Although crime is not exclusively a "big city" problem, it is widely recognized to have the greatest impact on the quality of life within large urban areas; the Safe Streets Act, for example, has been characterized as a "federal lifeline thrown to our large cities." It has been suggested that professionalization of metropolitan police is the most problematic aspect of general upgrading efforts. James Q. Wilson comments:

> First, the prospects for a high level of professionalism in the police forces of many—if not most—large American cities seem dim. There are not in these cities either the governmental arrangements or the institutionalized political ethos necessary to support professionalism against the opposing forces represented by the conditions of the central city. As many large cities fill up with lower-income people—Negroes, Puerto Ricans or rural whites—the police problem may grow worse. The incidence of hostile police-citizen contacts will likely increase rather than decrease. Further, if there is a continued migration of middle-class homeowners and business firms to the suburbs, the tax resources necessary to support police work may decline at the same time that the cost of law enforcement rises.[18]

This prognosis is supported by some preliminary data that indicate that large metropolitan police agencies are not attracting their share of the collegiate personnel entering law enforcement.[19]

Such information has implications for educational funding programs. If this pattern existed nationwide, an attempt might be made to direct collegiate personnel to urban agencies by redirecting educational funding to urban colleges, or by offering monetary incentives for employment in such agencies (accelerated forgiveness of LEEP loans?). Obviously, current employment patterns of collegiate personnel have important implications for the future of law enforcement. This study therefore examined the employment patterns of collegiate recruits by size of agency. Four categories were employed: agencies of less than 50 sworn personnel, 50–199, 200–499, and over 500. The data from this sample do not indicate statistically significant differences in patterns of employment by size of agency among any educational level (see Appendix C, Table C–1). Fears regarding the general inability of "big city" agencies to attract collegiate officers thus appear for the time being to be unsubstantiated. That is not to say, however, that individual municipalites, given deteriorating economic and social conditions, are by any means assured of not experiencing difficulty. It is interesting to note, for instance, that disaggregation of the four-state sample in this study indicates significant differences in Michigan and New Jersey, the largest cities in these states not attracting a proportionate share of degree-holders. The problem in these states relates to Detroit and Newark, not coincidentally the sites of serious racial conflict in the last decade. The four-state data taken together, however, do not indicate that large jurisdictions per se are avoided by collegiate recruits.

Employment patterns by type of agency were also examined. The relative prestige of police agencies in the United States by type of agency tends to be ordered in the sequence: state police/highway patrol, municipal agenices, and county sheriff departments. In addition, salary levels tend to vary from high to low in this sequence. Thus it was reasoned that police recruits with some college might seek employment in these types of agencies in the sequential order indicated. However, the data relating level of education to type of agency do not indicate differences in employment patterns of college-educated police recruits. (See Appendix C, Table C–2.) Intrinsic characteristics of agencies are therefore apparently not a determining factor in their ability to attract collegiate recruits.

F. The Impact of the Law Enforcement Education Program

In the Presidential campaign of 1964, crime

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[18] James Q. Wilson, "The Police and Their Problems: A Theory," in Niederhoffer and Blumberg, ed., *The Ambivalent Force: Perspectives on the Police* (Waltham, Mass.: Xerox Publishing, 1970), p. 306.

[19] William Nash's study of recruit educational levels in Michigan in 1971 cited earlier indicates in agencies of eleven to five hundred personnel approximately 13 percent of the recruits possessed baccalaureate degrees, while in Detroit and the Wayne County Sheriff's Department only approximately 8 percent possessed the baccalaureate.

became for the first time a political issue. The federal government reacted by initiating a program of federal assistance to local law enforcement agencies. Beginning with the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, federal support attained massive proportions with the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, PL 90-351. The Act created the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) as the agency within the federal Department of Justice responsible for a nationally coordinated effort to control crime. From an initial budget of $63,000,000 in fiscal 1969, LEAA funding had climbed to $1,000,000,000 in 1973.[20]

The upgrading of police personnel was made an important part of the Act. Section 406 established a program designed to encourage the pursuit of higher education by both present and potential police officers (Law Enforcement Education Program—LEEP). The original statute authorized grants "for tuition and fees not exceeding $200 per academic quarter or $300 per semester . . . for officers of any publicly funded agency," and "loans not to exceed $1800 per academic year for pre-service students intending to seek employment in a law enforcement agency."[21] In 1973, the grants were increased to $250 per quarter or $400 per semester, and the loans to $2,200 per academic year. Grants and loans are forgivable for service with a criminal justice agency following completion of academic work. Three and a quarter million dollars in such funds were granted in 1969; $16,000,000 in 1970; $25,000,000 in 1971; $29,000,000 in 1972; $40,000,000 in 1973; and have remained at that level since. In the 1974-75 academic year, some 100,000 students at 1,068 institutions received LEEP aid. The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration estimates that 54 percent of all criminal justice students are receiving LEEP aid. Of these, 84 percent—79,391—are in-service students, and 16 percent—15,609—are pre-service students. Since the LEEP program began in 1969, some 135,000 students have received LEEP aid totaling $110,000,000. The percentage of in-service students has steadily increased since the inception of the program. The vast majority of these are police officers.[22] Police personnel have, throughout the program, constituted approximately 80 percent of the students, corrections personnel 14 percent, and court and related personnel the other 5 percent.

The priorites of the Law Enforcement Education Program have always stipulated that in-service personnel should receive funds in preference to pre-service students. While sufficient LEEP monies have generally been available to meet all the needs of in-service students, there have never been sufficient funds to fulfill all the requests for support by pre-service students. The adequacy of LEEP appropriations for pre-service students is thus important to decisions regarding the adequacy of LEEP appropriations.

Any policy evaluation of the LEEP program should include an assessment of its impact on attracting pre-service personnel to the profession. The allocative decisions with regard to LEEP funds might be considerably different if, for instance, only 20 percent of newly employed, college-educated police personnel were "products" of the LEEP program, versus the possibility that 90 percent of such personnel are entering law enforcement as a result of LEEP. If the former is true, then a strong argument can be offered for deemphasizing the pre-service aspect of LEEP. At the same time, if the latter is true, then the opposite argument can be offered. In addition, evaluation of the program also should include an assessment of the degree to which LEEP enhances completion of academic studies and cultivates a commitment to a career in the criminal justice field. These issues are therefore addressed by this research. The data indicating the percentage of police recruits with at least one year of college that have received LEEP assistance are presented in Table 5.

Table 5.—LEEP ASSISTANCE RECEIVED PRIOR TO POLICE EMPLOYMENT AMONG COLLEGIATE RECRUITS

	Number	Percent
Received LEEP	207	13%
Did not receive LEEP	1351	87%

[20] Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, "Nixon Signs Bill Extending LEAA," *LEAA Newsletter*, 3:7 (September-October 1973), p. 33.

[21] *Law Enforcement Assistance Administration Third Annual Report* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972), pp. 81-82.

[22] Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, "LEEP Aids 95,000 Students at 990 Schools," *LSAA Newsletter*, 3:7 (Setpember-October 1973), p. 35; and LEAA, "LEAA Funding," *National Criminal Justice Educational Consortium Newsletter*, March 1975, p. 1.

As indicated in the table, the percentage of police recruits with some college that have received LEEP assistance is quite low. Only 13 percent of those recruits with at least one year of college received such assistance. The impact of LEEP with regard to attracting college students to the law enforcement field by providing direct assistance for educational expenses apparently has not been nearly as great as generally thought. Obviously, these data raise the question of whether the current level of these appropriations is adequate, i.e., whether raising LEEP expenditures in order to reach more pre-service students would be cost effective in terms of upgrading the educational levels of police recruits. One of the primary issues in this regard is how many of the 87 percent who did not receive LEEP had a commitment to entering law enforcement before terminating college study, and thus might have obtained more education had LEEP been available. The questionnaire used in this study elicited a response in this regard by querying the police recruits with some college as to the time frame of their decision to pursue a career in law enforcement. Seventy-two percent of the respondents indicated that they made such a decision before terminating college study; 10 percent of the respondents indicated such a decision came near or upon termination, while 18 percent indicated that the decision occurred after termination of college study. Thus, a majority of those who did not receive LEEP assistance intended to pursue a career in law enforcement while they were still enrolled in college, and presumably may have obtained more education had such assistance been available.

A second evaluative measure of the LEEP program is an examination of its relationship to level of education achieved. The data indicate that level of education and receipt of LEEP assistance are positively related. (See Appendix C, Table C–3). Forty percent of those with one or more years of college who received LEEP assistance entered the police service at the baccalaureate level, while only 25 percent of those with one or more years of college who did not receive LEEP assistance entered at the baccalaureate level. Whether the entire difference is attributable to LEEP making it possible for the former group to pursue college studies longer is problematic, since the former group may have been predisposed in the first place to pursue more education, and therefore may have tended to be more active in seeking assistance to do so. In addition, the aid may have been differentially awarded to those remaining in college longer. However, it is not unreasonable to assume that at least a part of the difference in educational levels between recipients and nonrecipients is attributable to the availability of the financial assistance per se.

A third evaluative measure of the LEEP program relates to the program's effect on developing commitment to a career in criminal justice. In order to achieve forgiveness of a LEEP loan, a pre-service student must spend four years in the criminal justice field. The purpose of the forgiveness clause is obviously to foster a commitment on the part of LEEP recipients to remain employed in criminal justice. The best means to determine if LEEP has such an effect is, naturally, a longitudinal study examining the actual tenure in criminal justice of LEEP recipients. However, lacking such information, it is at least of some use to examine the intentions of LEEP recipients relative to others with regard to anticipated tenure. Respondents in this study were therefore queried as to anticipated tenure—whether a career, one to five years, or less than a year. Comparing LEEP recipients with others, the data from this study do not indicate that a relationship exists between receipt of assistance and anticipated tenure. (See Appendix C, Table C–4). However, it must be noted that the overwhelming majority of the respondents (95 percent) indicate they intend to spend a career in the criminal justice field. For this reason, differences are difficult to discern between recipients and nonrecipients.

The relevant proportion of law enforcement majors versus others who receive LEEP assistance is an additional statistic of interest. The data indicate that of law enforcement majors, 23 percent received LEEP assistance prior to police employment, while of all other majors, only 4 percent received LEEP assitance prior to police employment. (See Appendix C, Table C–5.) This difference is substantial. The differential distribution of LEEP to law enforcement majors is undoubtedly largely responsible for the proliferate growth in the number of criminal justice academic programs in the last decade. Requests for funds from institutions have exceeded available amounts since 1971, and, as the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration notes:

> Many institutions begin LEEP participation with the sole intent of providing grants to part-time in-service officers. But program experience over three years shows that, more often than not, the initial concern and commitment of the academic community tend to expand and deepen.[23]

[23] *LEAA Third Annual Report*, op. cit., p. 84.

The number of criminal justice programs grew from 184 in 1966 to 664 in 1975, a growth rate unprecedented in higher education. Thus, although the percentage of police recruits receiving direct assistance through LEEP is relatively small, the indirect impact of the program is significant. The recent growth in criminal justice academic programs can be justifiably posited as accounting for the substantial amount of the rise in police educational levels. LEEP's impact should not therfore be measured merely in terms of the number of students directly assisted.

G. The Impact of Police Cadet Programs

One of the typical means suggested for attracting better qualified personnel to the police service has been the implementation of police cadet programs. The initiation of such programs was one of the specific recommendations included in the report of the 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*. A cadet program is an arrangement by which a young person 18–21 years of age is employed in a part-time capacity by a police agency (usually twenty hours per week) while he or she at the same time attends college classes. The cadet is a civilian employee, but is utilized in various capacities which are intended to provide him with a career orientation to the police service. Upon reaching 21 years of age, it is understood that the police cadet will be employed as a police officer with the agency. Duties assigned cadets vary significantly from agency to agency and include such work as dispatching, staffing public relations programs, lab assistance, parking meter enforcement, serving subpoenas, and miscellaneous clerical assignments. Some of the more commonly cited advantages of a cadet program are:

1. It attracts and recruits young men and women before they are committed to other occupations.
2. Long probation periods are provided by the cadet system. Potential policemen are observed for several years rather than the one-year probationary period normally established.
3. Longer training periods are provided. The cadet can and should actually be in training for police service throughout his cadet career.
4. Regular sworn personnel are released from clerical and routine duties for assignment to basic police functions when cadets are available.
5. When combined with a college program, the cadet system will produce at twenty-one years of age a candidate for police service who has not only received training, experience, and education, but has been closely observed over a period of years for defects in character or attitude that would adversely affect his performance as a policeman.[24]

It should be noted that many cadet programs were not initially combined work-study arrangements. Some were initiated instead to merely attract promising high school graduates to police service before they embarked on another career during the three-year hiatus before being eligible for police service. However, through primarily the efforts of community colleges, these programs now almost all have educational components:

> Through a cadet program the community college can offer to be a partner with the police department in career preparation and it is the wise police department that requires the cadet to attend his local college part-time. Such a joint effort should gradually insure the adequate flow of motivated young men with some departmental orientation into the recruit ranks, but even more significant, it will incorporate higher education into the recruitment process.[25]

The availability of Law Enforcement Assistance Administration Grants enhanced the implementation cadet programs. A number of police agencies implemented such programs in the late 1960's with financial assistance from the federal government. However, such programs have not met with overwhelming success. Three primary problems have been encountered in managing cadet programs:

1. The difficulty in identifying potentially desirable police officers at eighteen years of age.
2. Attrition rate in the programs (primarily attributed to the age of the participants).
3. Difficulty in finding meaningful assignments for which cadets are qualified outside of routine clerical duties.

Precise data are not available, but it can be reasonably estimated that 25 percent of agencies of over 200 sworn personnel have implemented cadet programs. Although the research methodology of this study does not allow confirmation of this statistic, the impact of cadet programs is partially assessed by ascertaining the total percentage of

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[24] Thompson S. Crockett and James D. Stinchcomb, *Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1968), p. 27.

[25] James D. Stinchcomb, "The Community College and Its Impact," *The Police Chief*, August 1966, p. 30.

police recruits that participated in such programs, and whether participation in such programs relates to academic degree attainment. The data pertaining to extent of cadet involvement are presented in Table 6.

Table 6.—PRIOR INVOLVEMENT IN POLICE-CADET PROGRAM AMONG RECRUITS WITH SOME COLLEGIATE TRAINING

	Number	Percent
Former police cadet	331	18%
No cadet involvement	1468	82%

It should be emphasized that the percentage represents the proportion of police recruits *with some college* employed during the year who had participated in a police cadet program. It is interesting to note that police cadet programs have apparently not developed to a greater extent in California than anywhere else. The percentages of former cadets by states are: California—18 percent, Michigan—19 percent, New Jersey—14 percent, and Texas—23 percent. Based on these data, the impact of cadet programs appears to be substantial.

The vast majority of police cadet programs are designed to educationally assist police recruits to the associate degree level. If cadet programs are having the effect they are designed to have, participants in such programs should attain associate degrees in proportionally greater numbers. The data relating involvement in a cadet program and academic degree attainment support this expectation. (See Appendix C, Table C-6.) The magnitude of the relationship is not, however, overwhelming: Forty-eight percent of former cadets had attained an academic degree, compared to 45 percent of those without prior cadet involvement. This difference is slight considering the investment of resources necessary to manage a cadet program. In addition, cadet involvement actually correlates negatively to baccalaureate degree attainment. Of course, it must be recognized that participants in a cadet program may not have attended college at all had it not been for these programs. But nevertheless, as police educational levels continue to rise police cadet programs ought to be carefully examined for cost effectiveness and with regard to their tendency to level education to associate degree attainment when higher proportions of noncadets are attaining a baccalaureate degree.

H. The Impact of Incentive Programs

A third type of program included in efforts to educationally upgrade the police has been the granting of a reward for completed education to police officers. Reward programs implemented to date have been of four types:

1. A percentage salary increment, i.e., an "x" percent annual salary bonus for those officers who have completed an academic degree, or "x" amount of dollars for each credit of college work completed;
2. A seniority salary increment, i.e., those police recruits who have completed a certain amount of college are given a starting annual salary equivalent to "x" amount of years of service;
3. Shorter time in rank before qualifing for promotion, i.e., police officers with a baccalaureate degree or some other increment of college education are eligible to take promotional examinations in a shorter period of time than others;
4. Special preference given for particular types of assignments, such as tactical units, crisis intervention units, special investigative units.

The implementation of incentive rewards for completed education has been recommended by both the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice[26] and the Commission on Criminal Standards and Goals. The recommendation made by the Commission on Standards and Goals was very specific:

> Incentive pay should be provided for the attainment of specified levels of academic achievement. This pay should be in addition to any other salary incentive. It should amount to at least 2.5 percent of the employee's current salary for each 30 semester units of college work completed in pursuance of a degree that will lead, directly or indirectly, to service betterment warranting the expense of the salary incentive.[27]

Reward programs for completed education are only now becoming widely implemented. In 1968, according to a study of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, less than 12 percent of 427 departments reporting in a national selection standard survey provided preferential pay incentives for credit toward college degrees.[28] A more comprehensive study conducted in the state of Ohio in that

[26] *Task Force Report: The Police* op. cit., p. 140.

[27] *Report on the Police*, op. cit., p. 372.

[28] Unpublished 1968 IACP training survey as quoted in Saunders, op. cit., p. 84.

same year revealed that 3 percent of the Ohio agencies awarded salary increments for given amounts of college work, while an additional 7.5 percent awarded extra points (credit) toward promotional examination grades.[29]

The number of agencies offering a reward for completed education has grown steadily since 1968. The precise number of agencies that currently offer incentive rewards is not known. However, to illustrate the gain in the popularity of such plans, it should be noted that *statewide* salary incentive reward plans have been implemented by Kentucky, Florida, and Massachusetts. A statewide incentive pay plan was established by Florida's revenue sharing act of 1972. The state government reimburses each county and municipal government for participation in a state-supervised police education incentive plan.[30] In 1971 the Massachusetts legislature passed the Police Pay Incentive Program, which authorizes the state to subsidize salary increases of up to 15 percent to policemen having an associate degree, 20 percent for a bachelor's degree, and 30 percent for a masters or law degree. The city of Boston has already authorized half of these maximum allowable increases.[31]

A survey of West Coast police agencies, conducted by the Los Angeles Police Department in 1968, elicited such favorable comments concerning incentive salary plans as:

> The recruitment of college-educated applicants has risen significantly. . . .
>
> The increased level of education has created better community support. . . .
>
> The number of officers enrolled in or having completed college has increased significantly. . . .[32]

An attempt is made in this study to gain some additional insight into the impact of such programs by measuring police recruits' attitudes toward such rewards, and comparing the existence of such rewards with the employment patterns of college-educated police recruits.

Respondents to the survey were asked to indicate whether or not they had received some form of a reward for completed college education from their employing agency. Fifty-two percent of the respondents from California with some college indicated they received a reward for completed college education, while 20 percent of those with some college from the other states indicate receiving such an award. The 20 percent receiving an award from Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas should be interpreted as indicative of a national average due to the atypical situation in California with reference to educational standards and levels. Those that responded affirmatively were asked to indicate the importance of the reward as it affected their choice of that particular agency. The summarized responses are presented in Table 7.

Table 7.—IMPORTANCE OF THE EXISTENCE OF EDUCATIONAL REWARD IN CHOICE OF A PARTICULAR AGENCY

	Number	Percent
Very important	82	13%
Some influence	287	45%
Less important	272	42%

The term "less important" was utilized in order to avoid the more limiting and absolute term of "unimportant." As indicated in the table, some 58 percent of those recruits who received a reward for completed college education indicated it had at least some influence on their decision to seek employment with the particular agency they did.

Very few police agencies now impose an educational requirement of a baccalaureate degree as qualification for employment. A large number of agencies do, however, impose college educational requirements, but less than a baccalaureate degree. It was felt that these agencies would also be likely to reward completed college education beyond the agency minimal requirements. The data indicate that an educational requirement of some college does relate positively to the existence of a reward for completed education in the agency. (See Appendix C, Table C-7.) Those agencies which impose a college educational requirement as a qualification for employment also tend to reward education completed beyond that requirement. Specifically, of those recruits employed by agencies which impose some college education as a requirement for employment, some 40 percent also received a reward for completed education. Of those recruits em-

[29] Kent State University Institute of Government Research and Service, op. cit., p. 23.

[30] Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, *Report on the Police*, op. cit., p. 374.

[31] Jonathan Hoffman, "Can Colleges Make Better Cops?" *College Management*, November 1972, p. 16.

[32] Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, loc. cit.

ployed by agencies in which no college educational requirement exists, only 30 percent received a reward for completed college education. The association of these two variables tends to support the postulate that reward programs impact the upgrading of educational levels of police recruits.

In addition to acting as an initial employment incentive, rewards for completed education might also influence college educated recruits to extend the length of their tenure with the agency of employment. The best data in this regard would be a comparison of actual tenure of college educated recruits in agencies offering a reward for completed education contrasted with the tenure of such personnel in agencies not offering such a reward. However, in lieu of this measure, it is useful to query newly employed recruits with regard to their anticipated tenure with their present employing agency and contrast this with the existence of a reward for completed education in the agency. Comparison of the data does indicate there is a positive relation between anticipated tenure in present employing agencies and receipt of a reward for completed education. (See Appendix C, Table C–8.) It is possible that intervening variables influence this relationship. It would not be unreasonable to assume that agencies which offer a reward for completed college education might also be agencies which tend to offer better career opportunities, better salaries, and are more prestigious. These factors would also affect anticipated tenure. The relationship among these several variables was therefore examined.

The respondents to the survey were asked to rank from high to low six factors which affected their choice of the particular agency with which they sought employment. These were: only available police employment at the time, agency's salary compared to others, agency's prestige compared to others, nature of the jurisdiction, agency's recruitment efforts, and agency's career and promotion opportunities. The rank order assigned these factors was contrasted between those recruits receiving a reward for completed education and those not receiving such a reward. The purpose of this comparison is to attempt to determine what other factors are associated with the seeking of a reward for completed education, and thus obtain an indirect measure of the influence of such a reward in and of itself. The data indicate that those recruits who received a reward ranked "agency salary" and "agency career and promotion opportunities" higher than those who did not receive such a reward. (See Appendix C, Table C–9.) They ranked "only available police employment at the time" and "agency recruitment efforts" lower than others. No differences were detected in the rankings of "agency prestige" and "nature of the agency jurisdiction."

The association between receipt of a reward for completed education and a higher ranking of agency salary as a factor influencing the decision is to be expected. Most reward programs for completed education consist of a salary increment. Those who would seek out such a reward would therefore place a higher value upon salary. The receipt of a reward for completed education is also positively associated with agency career opportunities. Apparently those agencies which offer an educational incentive reward are also perceived as offering better career opportunities.

The negative association between receipt of a reward and the rank order of agency recruitment efforts is somewhat difficult to explain. One might logically expect a positive association in this regard. However, perhaps the existence of a reward for completed education serves as a recruitment technique in and of itself, and hence other agency efforts in this regard are ranked as less important. The negative association between receipt of a reward and the rank order of "only available police employment at the time" is a logical one. The relation indicates that the existence of a reward for completed education in an agency will tend to draw personnel seeking an agency with good career and promotion opportunities (note again the positive relationship in that regard) rather than individuals simply groping for the first employment available. The pattern of the rankings assigned tends to support the postulate that reward programs significantly contribute to raising educational levels.

A related issue to assessing the impact of agency reward programs for completed education is the determination of the desirability of various types of reward programs. The most useful information in this regard is a comparison of the desirability of various reward programs by educational levels. All respondents to the survey were asked to rank four types of reward programs in terms of their relative attractiveness. The data relating the mean ranks assigned each of these programs by level of education do not indicate any difference in preference among the various levels. (See Appendix C, Table C–10.) Overall, the police recruits indicated that a percentage salary increment was the most attractive reward program, then shorter time in rank before

qualifying for promotion, then preference given for special assignments, and last, seniority salary increments. No differences in rank order emerged by level of education.

I. The Impact of Agency Characteristics

To measure the impact of educational upgrading efforts it is necessary to not only determine the intrinsic agency characteristics affecting employment, such as size and type of agency, but also to measure the impact of manipulable characteristics. Two of these which might attract collegiate personnel to a particular agency have been discussed already, cadet programs and reward programs for completed education. However, it is necessary to also attempt to ascertain what other kinds of considerations might affect the selection of a particular agency by collegiate personnel. Six factors are postulated as having possible relevance:

1. The particular agency was the only available police employment at the time.
2. The employing agency's salary was favorable compared to others.
3. The employing agency's prestige was favorable compared to others.
4. The nature of the jurisdiction (i.e., suburban vs. urban; lower-class vs. middle-class, etc.) held some particular kind of appeal.
5. The particular agency's recruitment efforts were better than others.
6. The agency's career and promotion opportunities were better than others.

It is wise to determine the relative importance of these factors as they bear upon choice of employment before agencies launch extensive programs to attract collegiate personnel. The ranked importance of these factors definitely affects the types of recruitment programs appropriate.

The data relating level of education and the rank order assigned the six factors affecting the choice of a particular agency indicate that the rank order of factors affecting the selection of a particular agency does not vary by level of education. (See Appendix C, Table C-11.) Overall the rank order of the factors from high to low is:

1. Agency career and promotion opportunities.
2. Agency prestige compared to others.
3. Agency salary compared to others.
4. The nature of the agency jurisdiction.
5. Agency recruitment efforts.
6. Only available police employment at the time.

The rank order assigned the various factors would tend to indicate that the professional reputation of an agency, measured here by relative career opportunities and prestige, is more important than the specifics of salary, jurisdiction, recruitment, or availability of employment.

Other information also indicates that agency reputation may be extremely important. Following is a pertinent excerpt from *Police Compensation*, a research study for the President's Commission on Crime and Criminal Justice:

> The educational standard for law enforcement of less than high school will seriously affect the quality of police recruits who will be attracted to the position. There is a kind of "Gresham's Law" which operates in recruitment standards. The recruiting agency tends to attract in greatest quantity the persons who barely meet the minimum standards for the position. Persons whose educational attainment exceeds the minimum standards for a position will not often apply for a position which requires lesser standards of education.[33]

The fact that a "Gresham's Law" effect does affect police recruitment efforts is supported by reports from agencies which have initiated higher educational standards. Multnomah County, Oregon, was one of the first police agencies in the country to adopt a baccalaureate requirement. In a recent article regarding that agency's experience with such a requirement, the Sheriff's Department training sergeant, James K. Weber, commented:

> Four hundred and twenty-nine applicants sought employment with Multnomah County in 1971. Twenty men were hired during this period reflecting a "hired" to "applied" ratio of 1:22. . . . The baccalaureate requirement, itself, appears to have a magnetizing effect on recruiting graduates. The appeal to work for a police agency requiring four years of college as an entrance requirement has become a standard response of applicants when asked why they applied for a position with our department.[34]

A similar observation was elicited from William F. Danielson, Director of Personnel for the city of Berkeley, California:

> For several years the cities of San Jose and Berkeley have required two years of college to apply for police positions. It has been my

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[33] As quoted in Carl F. Lutz, "Overcoming Obstacles to Professionalism," in Harry W. More, Jr., *Critical Issues in Law Enforcement* (Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson, 1972), p. 394.

[34] James K. Weber, "It Can Work for You," *The Police Chief*, 40:10 (October 1973), p. 41.

> experience in Berkeley, and I understand in San Jose as well, that many college graduates and young men with substantial college education have been attracted to apply for police positions in these departments because of the high educational standard.[35]

These reports indicate a significant relationship between the existence of educational standards and the attraction of educated personnel. To further examine the possibility of this relationship, the rank order assigned agency prestige as it relates to employment by agency educational requirement was determined. Those employed in agencies which require some college ought to place greater credence in agency prestige if educational requirements really do attract college graduates. Examination of the relationship indicates that the rank order of two factors affecting the choice of a particular agency varies by agency educational requirement—"agency prestige compared to others" and "only available police employment at the time." (See Appendix C, Table C–12.) The factor of "only available police employment at the time" is ranked lower by those employed in agencies which require some college. This is a reasonable expectation since one would anticipate those seeking employment in such agencies to be more selective in their choice of an agency. The mean rank of "agency prestige compared to others" is higher among those employed in agencies which require some college. In fact, agency prestige is ranked the most important consideration by those employed in agencies which require some college. This relationship supports the contention that agency educational requirements do, in and of themselves, attract collegiate recruits.

Because agency prestige and agency educational requirements are very closely related, it was decided to also test education requirements against proximity of present employment to home town. Such an examination serves as an indirect measure of the influence, i.e., "drawing power," of agency educational requirements. Such data are a valuable supplement to the data obtained by querying the respondents as to the rank order they would assign the six variables listed earlier. The latter data are, of course, susceptible to the influence of socially desirable response patterns and other nuisance variables which do not affect relationships such as that tested in comparing these two variables. The data relating proximity of present employment to home town and employment by agency educational requirement indicate the two variables are positively related. (See Appendix C, Table C–13.) The imposition of college educational requirements apparently does draw college-educated personnel from their home town vicinity to distant agencies which have such requirements. Taken together, the relationships among the rank order of influences and employment patterns of collegiate recruits lend considerable support to the concept of educational standards as self-fulfilling prophesy.

When considering the factors which affect the choice of a particular agency, it is useful to also ascertain whether such factors might vary by agency size. The data relating size of agency and the rank order of considerations affecting the choice of a particular agency indicate that five of the six factors do vary by size of agency. (See Appendix C, Table C–14.) The influence of "only available police employment at the time" apparently increases as size of agency decreases. This would indicate that either small agencies are less selective in their employment criteria or that those who merely look for the first available police employment tend to look to small agencies more often. There is a general tendency for agency salary to be rated more important as a consideration as size of agency increases. Agency prestige assumes increased importance as size of agency increases. This is consonant with the general observation that larger police agencies are generally more prestigious. The importance of "nature of agency jurisdiction" varies inversely with size of agency. Those who are employed in smaller agencies rate this factor as more influential. Smaller agencies do tend to be associated with suburban and middle-class jurisdictions, while larger agencies are associated with metropolitan jurisdictions. Those who seek employment in smaller agencies are apparently influenced by the opportunity to work in a middle-class or suburban environment. Agency recruitment efforts do not vary by size of agency, but this is to be expected considering the fact that very few police agencies make much of an effort at recruitment. Agency career and promotion opportunities tend to be rated higher as size of agency increases.

The utility of this data relates to the kind of recruitment efforts likely to be most effective in

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[35] California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, Symposium on Professional Police—Fact or Fantasy, *Proceedings of a Symposium Held at Goodman Hall, Oakland, California, April 3, 1968* (Printed by State of California Department of Justice, 1968), p. 9. Similar observations were made by the staff of the Dallas, Texas, and Lakewood, Colorado, Police Departments in personal conversations with this author.

various sizes of agencies. The data indicate that large agencies would do well to emphasize their career and promotion opportunities, while small agencies would do best to emphasize the nature of the agency jurisdiction.

J. Education and Anticipated Tenure

A scarcity of data exists relating levels of education to tenure with law enforcement agencies. There are conflicting reports from the information that has been gathered. In a study of fourteen California jurisdictions involving some 5,000 individual cases, level of education and tenure were negatively correlated.[36] In a study of New York City police recruits, it was similarly found that:

> . . . One-third of the college-educated recruits in 1957 (8 out of 24) were found to have left the force by 1968, compared to 19 percent of the men who had not graduated from college. . . . The data suggest that many men who represent the Department's view of a desirable candidate, especially college-educated men, will have shorter tenure than the average officer unless the Department consciously attempts to determine the source of dissatisfaction among such officers and modifies its personnel policies accordingly.[37]

However, a report from the Multnomah County, Oregon, Sheriff's Department indicates that the attrition rate of college-educated officers differs little from other police personnel.[38] Similarly, the Dade County, Florida, Metropolitan Police report no greater difficulty in retaining collegiate recruits.[39] The influence of education upon tenure may therefore be subject to certain agency characteristics.

The best data in this regard would be information gathered from a national sample of agencies comparing educational level to actual tenure. Lacking such information, it was felt useful to examine in this study anticipated tenure in both the criminal justice field and present employing agencies by educational level. The data presenting the aggregate responses are presented in Table 8. The data indicate that although only 5 percent of police recruits anticipate less than a career in the criminal justice field, some 30 percent anticipate less than a career in their present employing agency. Relatively few police recruits with some college who enter the police service do so as merely temporary employment. However, a fairly large percentage anticipate leaving their initial agency of employment.

Table 8.—ANTICIPATED TENURE IN PRESENT AGENCY CONTRASTED TO ANTICIPATED TENURE IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE FIELD

	Less Than 1 Year	1–5 Years	Career
Anticipated tenure in present agency	1%	29%	70%
Anticipated tenure in field	0%	5%	95%

Because the aggregate percentage of recruits anticipating a career in the criminal justice field was so large (95 percent), differences by level of education are not significant—statistically or otherwise. However, differences in anticipated tenure in present employing agencies do relate to level of education. The data relating level of education and anticipated tenure in present employing agencies indicate that at an educational level of four or more years of college, proportionally fewer police recruits anticipate a career in present employing agencies. (See Appendix C, Table C–15.) Specifically, 39 percent of the police recruits with four or more years of college indicate an anticipated tenure of only one to five years with present employing agencies, contrasted to an average of 25 percent of all other police recruits. It would appear that four-year graduates expect greater mobility in the field than others. Anticipated mobility is not, however, affected by lesser levels of education.

In order to determine whether agency characteristics might influence anticipated tenure, several relationships were examined. The first of these was the relationship between anticipated tenure in initial employing agencies and the rank order assigned considerations which affect the selection of the particular agency. These data indicate that three factors, "only available police employment at the time," "agency prestige compared to others," and "agency career and promotion opportunities," relate to anticipated tenure in present employing agencies. (See Appendix C, Table C–16.) As might be expected, those who anticipate longer tenure in

[36] Ruth Levy in California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, Symposium on Professional Police—Fact of Fantasy (1968), p. 42.

[37] Cohen and Chaiken, op. cit., pp. 112, 113.

[38] Weber, op. cit., p. 42.

[39] Personal communication from Public Safety Director William Purdy to A. F. Brandstatter.

present employing agencies rank "only available police employment at the time" as having less influence upon the employment decision. The mean rank of agency prestige relates positively to anticipated tenure in present employing agencies, as does the mean rank of agency career and promotion opportunities.

In addition, positive relationships also emerge whenever anticipated tenure in present employing agency is compared to agency educational requirements, anticipated tenure being greater in those agencies imposing a collegiate educational requirement (see Appendix C, Table C–17); whenever tenure is compared to starting annual salary, anticipated tenure being greater in those agencies offering higher salaries (see Appendix C, Table C–18); and whenever tenure is compared to size of agency, anticipated tenure being greater in agencies of over fifty sworn personnel (see Appendix C, Table C–19).

Hence, certain types of agencies do engender greater anticipated tenure among collegiate recruits. These agencies are characterized by a cluster of attributes which include better career and promotion opportunities, higher prestige, higher educational employment standards, better salaries, and a size of over fifty sworn personnel.

K. The Impact of Academic Programs in Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice

It would seem logical to examine not only educational levels of police recruits, but also the nature of their educational experience. Individuals enter police service with diverse educational backgrounds. Although academic programs in law enforcement have proliferated, little documentation exists to substantiate the establishment of specific courses of study in this area, other than the logical premise that the existence of an academic major in a particular field undoubtedly attracts more students to that occupational concern than would otherwise be the case. Thus, the first statistic of interest when examining the contrast between law enforcement majors and police recruits with other academic backgrounds is the relative proportion of each entering the police service. The data describing the nature of the academic majors of collegiate police recruits are presented in Table 9. Note should be taken of the fact that only about half of the collegiate police recruits entering the police service between July 1, 1972, and June 30, 1973, majored in law enforcement. When this fact is considered in conjunction with the finding that only 37 percent of police recruits during the period had some college background, the need for continued expansion of academic programs in law enforcement is obvious.

Table 9.—MAJOR FIELD OF COLLEGIATE STUDY

	Number	Percent
Law Enforcement/Criminal Justice	834	46
Social Science	297	17
Education	73	4
Arts & Letters	31	2
Business/Management	232	13
Natural Sciences	90	5
Non-Preference	108	6
Other	131	7
Total	1796	100

The effect of law enforcement as an academic major upon level of education is important to ascertain when assessing the impact of such programs. There is considerable debate among law enforcement academicians as to whether law enforcement programs ought to be concentrated at the associate or baccalaureate level. This argument will be largely resolved, however, not by the academicians themselves, but by the academic ambitions of law enforcement students. A contrast of level of education and major field of study indicated that there is a relationship between the two variables. (See Appendix C, Table C–20.) Proportionately fewer law enforcement majors completed four or more years of college, while proportionately more law enforcement majors completed two but less than four years of college. This phenomenon is, of course, a function of the widespread development of associate degree programs in law enforcement. In contrast, proportionately more police recruits who majored in other disciplines complete four or more years of college.

These data indicate that a large number of law enforcement majors are terminating their college study at the associate degree level. At the same time, however, a percentage of law enforcement majors which is certainly not slight are continuing their education through the four year level. Continued development of baccalaureate programs is therfore appropriate. The data regarding the other fields of college study indicate that law enforcement employment is not merely a haven for drop-outs from these majors, but that the police service is attracting the same proportion of degree program

graduates from these programs as from among those majoring in law enforcement.

There is a fear among many of the professionals in the law enforcement field that a large number of the college-educated recruits entering the police service from academic majors other than law enforcement are using such employment simply as an expedient means of obtaining a temporary job. Evidence does exist which indicates that those majoring in law enforcement may be more committed to a career in the field. In the study of 5,000 officers in fourteen California jurisdictions alluded to earlier, it was observed that more personnel who had attended police science courses before employment remained in the law enforcement field.[40] In an effort to further examine this phenomenon (to the extent possible by a query as to anticipated tenure), the data relating anticipated tenure in the criminal justice field and major field of college study were compared. (See Appendix C, Table C-21.) The data indicate there is a relationship between the two variables. Law enforcement majors do anticipate longer tenure in the criminal justice field. Although the magnitude of the difference is not great, one is certainly justified in advocating further development of academic programs in law enforcement and criminal justice not only upon the premise that such development will likely attract greater numbers of college-educated personnel to the police service, but also upon the premise that those so attracted will be more likely to remain.

L. Summary

The purpose of the research reported in this monograph was to determine the current educational levels of police recruits in the United States and the influence of certain factors affecting college-educated recruits' choice of a particular agency for employment. In order to obtain a national sample, four states representative of national characteristics were selected for inclusion in the study: California, Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas. Data obtained from the records of the law enforcement standards and training commissions in these states included names, educational levels, and agencies of employment of newly hired police recruits between July 1, 1972, and June 30, 1973. A stratified random sampling of these recruits was selected to provide a research population for a mailed questionnaire. The purpose of the questionnaire was to elicit information regarding factors pertinent in selection of a particular law enforcement agency for employment by college-educated police recruits. The major findings pertinent to each issue addressed are summarized below.

Current educational levels. The data from this study indicate that some 37 percent of the recruits now entering police service have been in college for at least one year; in California, this percentage is an atypical 73 percent. Some 10 percent of the police recruits now entering law enforcement have completed four or more years of college.

Patterns of employment. Generalized patterns of employment by size or type of agency according to level of education do not emerge, although certain large metropolitan agencies apparently do experience difficulty in attracting collegiate recruits.

The Impact of the Law Enforcement Education Program. Only 13 percent of collegiate police recruits now entering police service have received direct financial assistance through the Law Enforcement Education Program. However, because this assistance was differentially distributed, 23 percent to law enforcement majors as opposed to 4 percent to others, the program has fostered development of academic programs in law enforcement, hence, indirectly upgrading the educational level of police recruits. The receipt of LEEP assistance related positively to level of education attained.

The Impact of Police Cadet Programs. Some 18 percent of collegiate police recuits had experienced prior involvement in a cadet program. Cadet involvement relates positively to associate degree attainment, but negatively to baccalaureate attainment.

The Impact of agency reward programs. Fifty-eight percent of the police recruits who received a reward for completed education indicate that it had at least some influence in their decision to seek employment with the particular agency they did. The existence of a reward for completed education also relates positively to anticipated tenure in present employing agenices. Police recruits rank a percentage salary increment as the most attractive reward program for completed education.

The Impact of agency characteristics. Agency reputation appears to be very influential in attracting collegiate recruits. This phenomenon is substantiated by the ranking of agency career and promotion opportunies and agency prestige as the two most important influences affecting the choice of a particular agency. The existence of higher educational standards in an agency appears closely related to these factors. Overall, the order assigned to factors

[40] Levy, op. cit., p. 42.

enumerated in this study as influential in police recruits' selection of a particular agency are, in descending impact: (1) agency career and promotion opportunities, (2) agency prestige, (3) agency salary, (4) nature of agency jurisidcation, (5) agency recruitment efforts, (6) only available police employment at the time. The order assigned the factors varied according to size of agency, career and promotion oppotunities being more important among police recruits in large agencies, and the nature of agency jurisdiction being ranked more important among recruits in small agencies.

Anticipated tenure. Level of education does not appear to influence anticipated tenure in the criminal justice field, but does influence anticipated tenure in present employing agencies. An overwhelming majority of police recruits (95 percent) anticipate permanent careers in the criminal justice field; only 70 percent, however, anticipate lifetime careers with their present agency. Furthermore, foreseeable tenure in present agencies varies according to level of education—recruits with four or more years of college anticipating shorter tenure then those with less education. Emergent, however, is a type of agency attractive to college-educated police recruits who express longer anticipated tenure with their present agency. These are the agencies which tend to offer better career and promotion opportunities, are of higher prestige, offer better initial salaries, impose higher educational requirements, and are larger in size.

The Impact of educational programs in law enforcement. About half of the collegiate police recruits entering law enforcement have majored in law enforcement or criminal justice as a field of academic study. The associate degree appears to be academically terminal to a large proportion of law enforcement majors, although a significant number do attain a baccalaureate degree. Majoring in law enforcement does appear to be related to the development of a commitment to the police service as a career.

M. Conclusions

Two generalized conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this study. The first of these is that current efforts to educationally upgrade the police have resulted in moving police educational levels to a transitory stage between high school and college; nearly one-half of the police recruits now being employed have completed at least one year of college. The second conclusion is that the educational levels of police recruits in a particular agency are a function of the extrinsic rather than intrinsic characteristics of that agency. Most notable among the extrinsic characteristics are agency career and promotion opportunities, agency prestige, the existence of higher education employment requirements, and reward programs for completed education.

The first conclusion—that police educational levels have risen significantly during the last few years—offers encouragement to present efforts to upgrade the police. The fact that the LEEP program had directly assisted so few police recruits with a college background—only 13 percent—was a surprising finding of this study. It must be remembered, however, that the impact of LEEP goes beyond the extent to which it directly aids particular individuals. The development of academic programs in law enforcement/criminal justice has been by far the most significant reason police recruit educational levels have risen. Approximately 50 percent of the police recruits with some college have majored in an academic program in law enforcement, and LEEP has fostered the development of these programs. Most encouraging also is the fact that LEEP assistance, when received, does relate positively to level of education. The assistance program apparently accomplishes what it is intended to accomplish in this regard.

It should be noted that in California, which is several years ahead of the rest of the nation in development of academic programs in law enforcement, three-fourths of the police recruits spend at least one year in college, and one-fourth hold the baccalaureate degree. The California experience indicates that continued growth of academic programs in law enforcement will cause educational levels to rise significantly beyond their present status. Considering the fact that current LEEP appropriations in the form of direct student assistance are reaching only 13 percent of college-educated police recruits, it would appear to be more economical to direct a large proportion of future program funding to academic program development per se.

A significant number of police recruits with between two and four years of college standing, particularly among law enforcement majors, possess an associate degree. This seems to indicate that they are products of purposely designed academic programs terminating at this level, rather than being drop-outs of baccalaureate programs. The findings of this study also indicate that a high proportion of law enforcement majors continue study through the baccalaureate level, making it reasonable to infer

that the associate degree is not likely to become accepted as terminal for law enforcement officers. In this regard it is also noteworthy that involvement in a police cadet program actually relates negatively to baccalaureate attainment. Implied is a need for careful examination of police cadet programs as police educational levels rise to and beyond the two years of college at which such programs are now designed to terminate.

The second conclusion—that the educational levels of police recruits in a particular agency are a function of the extrinsic rather than the intrinsic characteristics of that agency—is, like the first conclusion, encouraging to efforts to upgrade the police. Educational levels do not vary according to either the size of an agency or the nature of agency jurisdiction. They do vary, however, according to manipulable characteristics of agencies, such as, better promotion and career opportunities, higher prestige, and the existence of higher educational employment requirements more likely to attract and retain college-educated police recruits. Thus, if a real desire exists to improve the caliber of police personnel in a particular agency, the intrinsic nature of the agency is not an excuse for failure to make such improvements.

In summary, all of the programs designed to educationally upgrade the police examined in this study were found to have had positive impact. The LEEP program, police cadet programs, agency reward programs, and academic programs in law enforcement are functioning conjunctively to improve police educational standards. While certain aspects of these efforts would benefit from specific changes, none were found to be completely ineffective. Continued effort to upgrade the police is indicated, as is the day when the democratic policeman becomes standard rather than ideal.

CHAPTER IV. THE NATURE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT CURRICULA

No one can yet say with any certainty what the future direction of law enforcement education will be. As a rule, established baccalaureate programs have tended to take the theoretically based criminal justice systemic approach, while new programs at state and community colleges have tended to be pragmatically oriented and focused exclusively upon the police component of the criminal justice system. In 1973, Catlin's study of core curriculum adopted by a number of state associations of law enforcement educators did not indicate any movement toward the systemic criminal justice approach.[1] However, as more qualified educators staff programs, experience indicates a movement away from a provisional "war story" approach to education toward a more theoretically based curriculum.

In a *National Strategy to Reduce Crime*, the Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals stipulated that:

> . . . criminal justice system curriculums and programs be established by agencies of higher education to unify the body of knowlege in law enforcement, criminology, social science, criminal law, public administration, and corrections, and to serve as a basis for preparing persons to work in the criminal justice system (page 42).

The Advisory Commission suggested that models for the development of such educational programming are presently available from the community college to the graduate level, but an effort is needed to congeal and disseminate such models. The Commission recommendation acknowledges dificiencies in current curricular programming. Curriculum recommendations from research commissions and respected individuals in the field always emphasize the essentialness of systemically based liberal studies in college programs to prepare criminal justice professionals. Present prevalent forms of criminal justice curricular programming provide an educational experience which attenuates this recommendation in three respects.

A. Present Deficiencies

First of all, most curricula include far too many professionally oriented courses. The inclusion of a preponderance of professional courses necessitates the exclusion of general education subjects more essential to students' development. This phenomenon is most prevalent at the community college level. It is not usual for the amount of professional course work to exceed 50 percent of the total credits required for a degree in many community colleges, and even some baccalaureate institutions. It should be recognized that all criminal justice educators acknowledge the value of professionally oriented courses addressing issues and problems in the criminal justice system. However, established senior institutions adhere to a standard dictating that only 25 to 33 percent of the total credits earned for a degree should be in a field of specialty such as criminal justice. Programs which exceed these standards are considered to be of questionable quality in terms of the overall purpose of higher education.

The second principal deficiency in criminal justice curricular programming relates to the qualitative nature of the professional course work. Most programs in the field, again preponderately located at the community college level, place far too much emphasis upon courses that prepare students to perform specific tasks more efficiently, i.e., they are heavily laced with curricula which train students to perform operational tasks. Such training is more appropriately offered in the context of a total career credentialing model. The inclusion of courses with a training orientation in basic undergraduate programming necessitates the exclusion of courses which explore new concepts and the implications of theoretical constructs. In the publication *Standards*

[1] Dennis W. Catlin, "Law Enforcement Core Curricula" (unpublished research report, Michigan State University, 1973).

Related to the Urban Police Function. The American Bar Association Advisory Committee comments:

> There is a great danger that the current effort to encourage police personnel to undertake college studies will result in the establishment of college level programs of questionable value. Examination of the curriculas of a number of programs that have been established in recent years reveals that many of them have a strong vocational orientation. . . . They do not meet the kinds of needs that have led to urging the police to undertake college work. At best, such programs constitute good training, at worst, they're lending status to an effort that serves only to reinforce the most parochial concepts prevalent in the police field (pp. 217–218).

Likewise, in the field of corrections, recommendations have stipulated that the best type of education is one drawn from a broad spectrum of perspectives. The final report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training includes this statement:

> In order to increase the capacity of higher education to render increased and more relevant assistance to correctional agencies, emphasis should be placed on the expansion and upgrading of the quality of education being provided by the disciplines and fields which are believed to be the most suitable for persons in or preparing to enter corrections. Joint Commission studies have found these to be sociology, criminology/corrections, social work, education, psychology, and public administration. In addition, schools of criminal justice, which cut across various of these fields, are viewed as an excellent educational resource for corrections (*A Time to Act*, pp. 28–29).

Unfortunately, however, educational programming in the field too often does nothing to prepare the student to be the critically thinking and discriminating professional decision maker which these recommendations portend.

Third and finally, is the need for criminal justice educational programming to provide a broad theoretical orientation to the entire criminal justice system and process, rather than a focus upon any particular component. Many of the senior institutions in the United States offering programs in criminal justice have already reoriented their curriculums to provide this type of educational experience for their students. Such institutions include the State University of New York at Albany, the University of Maryland, the University of Southern California, University of California at Irvine, Michigan State University, and numerous others. Programming at most state and community colleges remains, however, not only vocationally oriented, but focused exclusively on one or another component of the system. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals comments:

> A serious disadvantage with the present educational structure is that it does not provide common approaches to the problem of crime and justice that currently divide the system. . . . By failing to treat criminal justice as a whole, many institutions of higher education have overlooked an opportunity to help unify a frequently divided and unnecessarily competitive system (*A National Strategy to Reduce Crime*, p. 42).

In a criminal justice curriculum development project conducted under the auspices of the California Commission on Higher Education, a committee consisting of criminal justice educators from throughout California observed that ". . . Subsystem members training for future involvement within the system, rarely have the opportunity to cross-pollinate ideas and theories on critical issues involving each of the segments. . . . It appears inane to provide indepth education for current and future practitioners in atmospheres of isolation and then expect system members to magically work harmoniously in the 'real world' of their constant interaction and overlapping responsibilities."

While recognizing the need for significant change in the present nature of educational programming in the field, we must also realize that words of exhortation to implement such change will not be sufficient. The nature of curricula is dependent upon the nature of the teachers in an educational field, and here is encountered a problem. Charles W. Tenney, Jr., commenting in the NILE monograph "Higher Education Programs in Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice" writes:

> It is probable that there are several reasons why a two-year program is likely to follow the training model. In general, it is simply easier to develop this type of curriculum. Many of the course offerings in a college training curriculum are at best no more than an expansion of the subject offerings of a police academy. They are readily available models from which to build.

Stated succinctly, many educators in the field lack the requisite background to develop other than training curricula. Unfortunately, there is a paucity

of literature which would guide educators to do otherwise.

It is important to also recognize that the state of affairs existing in many community college law enforcement programs is not entirely attributable to the desire of the law enforcement educators employed there. Community college law enforcement programs have generally been viewed by administrators of these institutions to be appropriately considered vocational technical preparation. As such, they qualify for support under the auspices of the National Vocational Education Act of 1963, as ammended in 1968. The Act provides supplemental support in the form of a subsidy granted by the federal government for student credit hours generated in community college courses classified as vocational/technical. The basic purpose of the Act is to encourage vocational training in fields where such is needed, and to provide the necessary financial support for colleges to profitably offer such programs. Financial support is considered necessary in that vocational courses are more costly to offer than are liberal arts subjects, since they require the purchase of equipment and the provision of "hands-on" one-to-one instruction.

In the broad conceptualization of vocational training certainly many if not most associate degree law enforcement programs would meet the criteria stipulated. However, instruction in these programs is not generally any more expensive than instruction in typical liberal arts classes such as English or social science. Hence, the credit hours generated in law enforcement programs tend to be only of average cost to a community college, while the college receives federal subsidy through the Vocational Education Act upon the premise that these courses are in fact more expensive to offer. It is not difficult to imagine the chain of events following this circumstance. Law enforcement educators find themselves under intensive pressure to generate as many student credit hours as is possible. Hence, the number of courses offered proliferates, and individual students are encouraged to enroll in a disproportionately large number of law enforcement courses in their associate degree program.

In addition, the mere classification of law enforcement programs as vocational/technical encourages instruction related to technical skills rather than those which are more analytic in nature. There is pressure to formulate specific learning objectives. The formulation of such objectives encourages the introduction of basic "how to do it" concepts which are easier to articulate in the form of performance objectives than are analytic skills. There is additional pressure from the academic officers of community colleges to include technical skills training in the law enforcement program so as not to jeopardize the vocational/technical funding should the nature of the program be subjected to close scrutiny.

The impact of this phenomenon cannot be overstated. This author's experience in the state of Michigan is an excellent case example. In 1975 the Michigan Department of Education pressed forward with the development of program objectives for all academic offerings in community colleges classified as vocational/technical. In meetings with personnel from the State Department of Education this author pressed for the authorization of a "criminal justice generalist program" as appropriate for meeting the criteria established for vocational/technical funding. However, because a generalist program did not prepare individuals for a specific occupation, personnel from the Department refused to endorse the concept. Instead, performance objectives were written for component specific programs in law enforcement, corrections, and security administration. Community college programs in Michigan must therefore prepare students for a role in one of these specific occupations in order to quality for vocational/technical funding. Program parochialism was thus sustained.

To overcome present deficiencies, three programmatic objectives should be sought in future development of relevant curricula:

1. incorporation of a systemtic perspective to the criminal justice system;
2. placement of curricula in the context of a liberal arts education based in social sciences;
3. incorporation of the centrality of theory in specific course programming.

B. A Systemic Approach

All academic programs in this field, regardless of their specific component orientations, should provide coursework which introduces the student to the processes of the entire criminal justice system. The last decade has brought increased recognition of the fact that the administration of justice is indeed a system, albeit very often a dysfunctional one. Basic to the administration of justice in a democracy is separation of power and function in the process of apprenhending, adjudicating, and rehabilitating the criminal offender. One cannot possibly fully comprehend the objectives and processes of one component of such a system without understanding the

goals and processes of the entire system. Such an understanding is essential to the performance of criminal justice roles in a manner congruent with democratic philosophy and practice. Criminal justice system members, educated and trained in total isolation from one another, often find it nearly impossible to work harmoniously together whenever the situation demands. And indeed, there are numerous situations demanding component interaction and cooperation. The development of an understanding of role and responsibilities of all the components of the criminal justice system on the part of the members of each of these components would increase measurably the chances of cooperative interaction.

In addition to these reasons, students should be provided the opportunity to examine their own personal career goals and role aptitudes in relation to their congruence with the functional roles of the criminal justice system. It is recognized that there is at least some mobility of personnel within the criminal justice system. It seems appropriate that educational programming offer the student the opportunity to examine all criminal justice roles before embarking on a career. The probability that the role chosen will be the one best suited to the particular student's aptitudes and ambitions will thus be considerably increased.

C. A Liberal Arts Orientation

The administration of justice is the most visible and direct application of the principles and ideals of democratic government in the United States. As such, it is essential that balanced judgment flowing from inculcated democratic values characterize those who daily perform the roles of the criminal justice system. The last decade has brought acknowledgment that wide discretion exists in all components of the criminal justice system, and that such discretion is impossible to control by external checks. Our only assurance that the administration of justice is truly democratic from its initiation to conclusion is that the value systems of those who administer such justice are indeed democratic. The most effective means ever found to assure the inculcation of such a value system is liberal education. Those roles for which criminal justice educational programming is designed to provide preparation, i.e., police officer, court officer, juvenile counselor, corrections counselor, probation and parole officer, are not merely technical functions requiring knowledge of certain procedures and regulations. Rather, these roles are positions imbued with great responsibility and requiring insight and understanding of the social sciences. A liberal arts education based in the social sciences will best provide the kind of critically thinking and discriminating professional decision maker which these roles demand.

D. The Centrality of Theory

It is important to emphasize that included in all criminal justice educational programming should be theory. Education for the performance of roles in this field is not a mere traineeship, as important as certain kinds of training might be. Education is designed to prepare professionals who will exercise a great amount of discretion in a highly charged political environment. One does not train individuals for such a role; one educates for such a role. Education in this sense translates to the development of an understanding and appreciation of theory relating to the control of criminal behavior by structured societal response to such behavior. A police officer who understands the goals of the criminal justice system will be less likely to handle domestic disturbances in a cavalier fashion, but will recognize the relationship of family disorganization to criminal behavior and guide his own actions accordingly. Similarly, a parole officer who understands the conflicting demands made upon the criminal justice system will be able to cope in a much better way with the incongruent role demands of counselor and supervisor.

Theory engenders the ability to generalize, to base responses in a given situation upon an understanding of the broader context of an individual's role. The development of this ability is what educational instiutions can do best. Its development follows from critical analysis of the criminal justice system through face-to-face interaction with faculty. Teaching the "why" of criminal justice system processes is the task of educational institutions. That is not to say that the importance of teaching students the "how" of various processes is to be ignored. Educational institutions certainly have a role to play in this regard, but their primary mission should remain offering coursework consisting of critical analysis of the system as indicated by research based upon theory. An educational degree should not and can not become an all-purpose credentialing tool.

Perhaps a specific example will help to clarify this point. Almost every law enforcement program in the country has included in its curriculum a course on police administration and another on police

operations. One might teach these courses in either a prescriptive or theoretical context. A prescriptive context would involve the inclusion in the police administration course of such topics as: whether or not detectives ought to be sergeants, whether shifts ought to be fixed or rotating, whether patrol cars should be marked or unmarked, and other specific issues regarding the administration of a police agency. In contrast, a theoretical approach to police administration would in lieu of these topics include such subjects as: the social service versus law enforcement role dichotomy, political implications of police policy development, alternative police organizational structures (e.g., team policing, split force patrol), comparison of the American police service to foreign models, reconciliation of the police role with democratic values, and similar issues. Such an approach focuses upon the police process or function rather than specific administrative techniques. The police operations course taught from a prescriptive context normally includes such topics as: one-man versus two-man patrols cars, conspicuous versus inconspicuous patrol, methods for best patrolling a beat, whether or not the use of horses is a viable patrol technique (the topic is discussed in at least 50 percent of such courses taught in the country), indications that a building has been burglarized, and the like. In contrast, a theoretical approach to the teaching of police operations might be more appropriately termed "analysis of police operations," and include discussion of: police productivity measures, evaluation of specific police programs, issues related to both administrative and operational discretion, variation in enforcement styles and emphasis, and similar topics addressing the broad goals and operational policies of agencies. The difference in the knowledge base and perspective of students completing one type of program versus another is not trivial. If what sociologists have been telling us regarding the police role since 1960 is correct—that it is a position imbued with significant administrative and operational discretion—then it follows that offering an educational program designed from prescriptive premises is not logically sound. The formulation of sound discretionary ability follows the understanding of organizational goals and objectives and the policy implications which follow from such goals and objectives. It is a sad commentary on the state of the art of criminal justice education that most graduates in 1975, if asked to list the most significant problem in police administration today, would probably indicate one- versus two-man patrol cars, and most will never have heard of the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Study and its implications.

One of the serious difficulties in promoting a theoretical, systemic approach to law enforcement education is the difficulty in articulating the benefits to be accrued from such curricula. It is far easier to justify courses which will offer the student the immediate ability to do something better in a concrete, demonstrable sense, such as interrogate a suspect or conduct a crime scene search, than it is to justify curricula which enhance the students' understanding of the role of the police in a democracy. One of the most common complaints voiced by police administrators about educational programs is that college graduates cannot initially perform any better than high school graduates. The problem is that the results of liberal education generally appear in subliminal ways, and take a longer period of time to make a demonstrable difference than do the results of skill training.

E. Summary

For the sake of clarity, alternatives for law enforcement education have been presented in terms of offering a curriculum which is either systemic, liberal and theortical or is not. In practice, of course, a clean dichotomy does not exist. Teaching models in criminal justice tend to vary along a continuum. At the extreme left side of the continuum are instructors who discuss whether the police ought to wear silver or gold buttons. In the middle of the continuum are topics such as one- versus two-man patrol. At the far right hand side of the continuum are topics such as the management of discretion. It would be pretentious to list 100 topics related to the police service, correctional administration, delinquency prevention and control, or the adjudication process and indicate that from now until evermore certain issues are appropriate for discussion in criminal justice educational programs while others are not. However, it seems perfectly reasonable to indicate that any course included in a criminal justice educational program ought to preponderantly address issues or problems which fall at least on the right hand side of a prescriptive/theoretical education continuum.

The issue is not really whether it is appropriate for educational programs to teach the "how to" of any particular procedural operation. The issue is whether the "how to" ought to be taught rather than the "why," whenever there is only space in the curriculum to do one or the other. In the

traditional professions such as law and medicine the problem has been solved by a simple expansion of the educational requirement, such that a minimum of seven and very commonly ten years is required to complete such programs. Such an option is hardly a viable alternative for criminal justice education. What is a viable alternative, however, is to place heavy emphasis upon theoretical considerations in educational curricula, while delegating to agencies the responsibility to teach their newly employed personnel specific procedures unique to the numerous roles in the criminal justice system. In fact, an appropriate standard which might be applied to determining whether a topic ought to be considered educationally appropriate is the universality of its application to criminal justice roles. Hence, it would not be at all inappropriate for educational institutions to offer criminal justice majors a course in counseling techniques, while "how to best patrol a police beat" is obviously a topic of particular agency concern.

Keep in mind that no proffered guidelines which might be suggested will provide "the answer" in every conceivable situation. But this should not cause real concern. Typologies provide a benchmark for assuring that the thrust of curricula meet appropriate standards, rather than discerning clearly whether each minute of classroom instruction included in a curriculum ought or ought not to be part of an educational program.

CHAPTER V. A MODEL CRIMINAL JUSTICE CURRICULUM

A. Introduction

Traditionally educational institutions have played a significant role in inculcating in members of professions related to one another a sense of congruent goals and objectives. Hence, whenever such professionals interact with one another in the "real world," a total system perspective influences the nature of decisions made. This is illustrated, for instance, in the K–12 public school educational system. Individuals are prepared to serve in that system in capacities as diverse as instructing seven-year-old children in the fundamentals of reading to the teaching of metal machining to high school seniors. Professionals working in this system are employed in school districts ranging from those enrolling students numbering close to a million to those numbering only a few score. Yet, despite immense diversity among specific programs, an amazingly similar common sense of objectives pervades the entire public school system. A significant influence is the educational preparation that K–12 teachers receive in institutions of higher education. Preparation for K–12 teaching certainly includes mastery of certain fundamental classroom skills, but it also includes a curricular core which introduces the student to K–12 education as a system with certain pervading goals and objectives which establish the parameters and criteria for the specific programming which occurs.

No other professional system can be compared by precise analogy to the criminal justice system. Congruence of goals coexistent with diversity of program is, however, highly desirable in both criminal justice and K–12 education. Colleges and universities can contribute significantly to establishing such goal congruence. Criminal justice educational programs should be playing a role in this regard, as are schools of education in preparation of elementary and secondary education professionals. However, this is not presently the case. The recommendation of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals relevant to the need to develop a criminal justice curriculum unifying relevant knowledge from several disciplines was made in recognition of the fact that educational programming in the profession is deficient in this regard.

Presented in Appendix A is a suggested curriculum designed to overcome this deficiency. No publication exists which offers explicit guidance for implementing a theoretically based criminal justice generalist curriculum. Without the provision of detailed and fully implementable alternative guidelines, curriculum development in law enforcement programs has tended to proceed from photocopies (often literally) of training courses offered in academies. For each course recommended in the model curriculum, the following detail of description is provided:

1. A catalogue description of the course
2. An annotated recommended list of readings which are directly relevant to the course. Approximately ten to fifteen readings per course are cited. The citations in the list are judged appropriate for either text selection or class assigned readings. The lists of readings are thus not comprehensive bibliographies pertaining to each segment of the curriculum, but rather consist of citations judged relevant as required readings for the anticipated kinds of students to be enrolled in the course. It must also be strongly emphasized that the readings cited are only representative of material considered appropriate for a course. Other texts or readings could well be at least as appropriate, if not more so. The citations are inherently limited to those familiar to this author. No educational institution or educator should assume that the absence of a citation in this monograph necessarily indicates a judgment that a document is inappropriate relevant to any particular course or a criminal justice curriculum.
3. An outline of the basic content of the course is included. Some variation in the outline format occurs for courses designed as interaction seminars or internships.

B. Program Requirements

The model presented in Appendix A lists courses from the "100" to "400" level. Associate degree

programs should appropriately include those courses labeled at the "100" or "200" level. Baccalaureate programs should include, in addition to these, the "300" and "400" level listings. The completion of a baccalaureate degree is assumed to involve examination in greater depth of all of the processes of the criminal justice system. Hence, the difference between an associate and baccalaureate degree includes greater breadth in those subject areas listed here at the "200" level, as well as the completion of courses at the "300" and "400" levels.

The general requirements of the Associate or Bachelor of Arts degree should apply to undergraduate criminal justice programs. The baccalaureate degree should require a minimum of thirty credits in criminal justice and impose a maximum of forty-two. The associate degree should require a minimum of fifteen credits in criminal justice and a maximum of twenty-one. A required criminal justice core of fifteen credits for either degree is suggested.

It is intended that the general curriculum orientation provide pre-professional preparation for entry level positions in a variety of criminal justice agencies, and/or preparation for graduate study. The curriculum is thus designed to provide a systemic orientation to criminal justice, so that graduates, regardless of occupational choice, will bring a broad view of criminal justice goals to their specific agency of choice. In addition, an analytic rather than vocational approach to the study of crime, criminal justice goals, processes, agencies, and programs is suggested.

C. Program Variation for In-Service Personnel

The coursework offered by an academic program ought to include a management seminar series focused upon administrative problems and techniques for in-service personnel. The management seminars should be allocated appropriate credit equivalency applicable toward meeting the requirements of the degree, and substitute for regularly offered criminal justice electives. The rationale for offering such a seminar series is based upon the proposition that the improvement of police management through both education and training is the most significant current need in the police service. To improve the management of police agencies, programs must be designed with a significantly different orientation than is appropriate for the pre-service student. Ideally, a career path should begin with the educational base generally recommended herein, then, as an individual proceeds into management ranks, include graduate study related to administrative endeavors. The recommendations for pre-service students are made assuming that administratively focused graduate study is not only a possibility for these individuals, but a distinct probability. However, we find ourselves presently with a large cadre of police personnel either in management positions or due very shortly to be promoted to the same lacking any educational base. It is true that there would be value for these individuals, and for the criminal justice system, in having them complete a "base building" course of study consisting primarily of general education bolstered by professional courses focused upon criminal justice as a process. However, it is not always possible, despite the best of sematic juggling, to have one's cake and eat it too. If this kind of a program is required of in-service individuals, then the enhancement of their management skills must be ignored. In cost-effective terms, enhancement of the management skills of in-service personnel will pay far more benefits than broadening their intellectual vision. That is not to say that the minimal general education requirements necessary for a degree should not be met by these individuals. However, a substantial portion of both the general and criminal justice electives included in their programs may appropriately be focused upon administrative practice.

It is suggested that a particular course listing for a management seminar series be included in degree programs. The structure of the management seminar series should be very flexible; i.e., course scheduling patterns other than those adhering to standard semester time frames should be designed. In addition, from both a cost effective point of view and for reasons of enhancing the breadth of the educational experience, enrollment in management seminars should include administrators from various types of criminal justice agencies.

D. The Meaning of a Model

One final note regarding the interpretation of the proposed applicability of the content and readings suggested as constituting a model curriculum. The term "model" as it is used here is meant to denote the suggested curriculum as an example of programming which conforms to stipulated criteria, rather than the ultimate ideal of such a program. It would be pretentious to suggest any curriculum as an ultimate ideal in a field as diverse, complex, and changing as criminal justice. Anyone familiar with the goals and processes of higher education in

America would also realize that regional and institutional variations of any model suggested are not only inevitable, but also highly desirable. Hence, the model suggested is not purported in any way to be a rigid standard from which any deviation is to be considered a detraction. The model is a guideline which individual institutions may find useful in the development of systemic criminal justice education.

APPENDIX A

GUIDELINES FOR THE RECOMMENDED PROFESSIONAL COURSES OF A CRIMINAL JUSTICE BACCALAUREATE CURRICULUM

Each guideline consists of:

1. A catalogue description of the course.
2. An annotated recommended list of readings which are directly relevant to the course. Approximately ten to fifteen readings per course are cited. The citations in the list are judged appropriate for either text selection or class assigned readings. The lists of readings are thus not comprehensive bibliographies pertaining to each segment of the curriculum, but rather consist of citations judged relevant as required readings for the anticipated kinds of students to be enrolled in the course. It must also be strongly emphasized that the readings cited are only representative of material considered appropriate for a course. Other texts or readings could well be at least as appropriate, if not more so. The citations are inherently limited to those familiar to this author. No educational institution or educators should assume that the absence of a citation in this monograph necessarily indicates a judgment that a document is inappropriate relevant to any particular course or a criminal justice curriculum.
3. An outline of the basic content of the course is included. Some variation in the outline format occurs for courses designed as interaction seminars or internships.

LIST OF RECOMMENDED PROFESSIONAL COURSES FOR A CRIMINAL JUSTICE BACCALAUREATE CURRICULUM

Required		*Page*
CJ 110	INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINAL JUSTICE	46
CJ 120	CRIMINOLOGY	46
CJ 230	POLICE PROCESS	46
CJ 240	ADJUDICATION PROCESS	46
CJ 250	CORRECTIONS PROCESS	46
Elective		
CJ 220	JUVENILE JUSTICE PROCESS	46
CJ 235	ANALYSIS OF POLICE OPERATIONS	46
CJ 236	CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION	46
CJ 245	CRIMINAL LAW	46
CJ 246	CRIMINAL EVIDENCE AND PROCEDURE	46
CJ 255	ANALYSIS OF CORRECTIONAL OPERATIONS	46
CJ 310	CRIMINAL JUSTICE ORGANIZATION THEORY	46
CJ 315	SECURITY SYSTEMS	47
CJ 316	COMMUNITY RELATIONS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE	47
CJ 401	INDEPENDENT STUDY	47
CJ 402	SPECIAL ISSUES IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE	47
CJ 410	RESEARCH IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE	47
CJ 490	FIELD PRACTICUM EXPERIENCE	47
CJ 495	SEMINARS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE MANAGEMENT	47
CJ 499	EVALUATION OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM	47

CATALOGUE DESCRIPTIONS OF RECOMMENDED CRIMINAL JUSTICE COURSES

Criminal Justice Required Courses

CJ 110 3 credits
INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINAL JUSTICE
A study of the agencies and processes involved in the criminal justice system—legislature, the police, the prosecutor, the public defender, the courts, and corrections. An analysis of the roles and problems of law enforcement in a democratic society, with an emphasis upon inter-component relations and checks and balances.

CJ 120 3 credits
CRIMINOLOGY
The study of deviant behavior as it relates to the definition of crime; crime statistics; theories of crime causation; crime typologies.

CJ 230 3 credits
POLICE PROCESS
Social and historical settings of the police; police role and career; police discretion; police values and culture; organization and control.

CJ 240 3 credits
ADJUDICATION PROCESS
Role and structure of prosecution, public defense, and the courts; basic elements of the substantive criminal law; procedural law and its relation to constitutional guarantees.

CJ 250 3 credits
CORRECTIONS PROCESS
Post-conviction correction process; the development of a correctional philosophy, theory, and practice; a description of institutional operation, programming, and management; community-based corrections; probation and parole.

Criminal Justice Elective Courses

CJ 220 3 credits
JUVENILE JUSTICE PROCESS
Definitions of delinquent behavior; contributing social problems; adolescence as a subculture; the adjudication process for juveniles—philosophy and practice; treatment procedures.

CJ 235 3 credits
ANALYSIS OF POLICE OPERATIONS
Problems of police organization and management; the allocation of police resources; information systems; community-relations concerns; determinants of police policy.

CJ 236 3 credits
CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION
Fundamentals of investigation; crime scene search and recording; collection and preservation of physical evidence; scientific aids; modus operandi; sources of information; interview and interrogation; follow-up and case preparation.

CJ 245 3 credits
CRIMINAL LAW
The legal definition of crime and defenses; purposes and functions of the substantive criminal law; historical foundations; the limits of the criminal law; focus upon the case study approach.

CJ 246 3 credits
CRIMINAL EVIDENCE AND PROCEDURE
Constitutional and procedural considerations affecting arrest, search and seizure, post-conviction treatment; origin, development, philosophy, constitutional basis of evidence; kinds and degrees of evidence and rules governing admissibility; judicial decisions interpreting individual rights and case studies; focus upon the case study approach.

CJ 255 3 credits
ANALYSIS OF CORRECTIONAL OPERATIONS
Problems of management of the correctional process; programming, security, information systems, reports, case management, evaluation of progress; custody and discipline as they relate to rehabilitative efforts; community adjustment facilities; problems of probation and parole.

CJ 310 3 credits
CRIMINAL JUSTICE ORGANIZATION THEORY
Basic knowledge of organizational function, structure, processes, and behavior; theory related to practice applied to the administration of the justice process; comprehension of administrative phenomena.

CJ 315 3 credits

SECURITY SYSTEMS

The role of security and the security industry in criminal justice; administrative, personnel, and physical aspects of the security field; loss prevention management in proprietary and governmental institutions, variations in physical security systems.

CJ 316 3 credits

COMMUNITY RELATIONS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE

Problems in citizen relations; treatment of victims, witnesses, and jurors; citizen involvement in the criminal justice process; community resources related to criminal justice programming.

CJ 401 1–3 credits

INDEPENDENT STUDY

Surveys and applied research as approved by student's major professor.

CJ 402 3 credits

SPECIAL ISSUES IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE

Forum for special course offerings focusing upon special issues in criminal justice by visiting instructors or regular faculty.

CJ 410 3 credits

RESEARCH IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE

Interaction of theory, research, and practice in the criminal justice process; purposes and limits of research; introduction to research design, data collection, analytic techniques, data processing resources, and preparation of research reports.

CJ 490 6 or 12 credits

FIELD PRACTICUM EXPERIENCE

Planned program of observation in selected criminal justice agencies representing the major components of the system.

CJ 495 1–3 credits

SEMINARS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE MANAGEMENT

Workshops designed for personnel staffing management positions in the criminal justice system; focus upon solutions to particular administrative problems.

CJ 499 3 credits

EVALUATION OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

Discussion and evaluation of criminal justice policies and practices with a focus upon crime prevention as the goal of the system; presentations by criminal justice officials; evaluation of career opportunities; preparation of undergraduate senior research paper.

INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINAL JUSTICE
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

A study of the agencies and processes involved in the criminal justice system—legislature, the police, the prosecutor, the public defender, the courts, and corrections. An analysis of the roles and problems of law enforcement in a democratic society, with an emphasis upon intercomponent relations and checks and balances.

Selected Reading Resources

Adams, Thomas F. (ed.). *Criminal Justice Readings*. Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., 1972.

Brandstatter, A. F., and Allen Hymen. *Fundamentals of Law Enforcement*. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1972.

The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Chamelin, Neil, Vernon Fox, and Paul Whisenand. *Introduction to Criminal Justice*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

Coffey, Alan, Edward Eldefonso, and Walter Hartinger. *An Introduction to the Criminal Justice System and Process*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1974.

Day, Frank D., A. C. Germann, and Robert R. J. Gallati. *Introduction to Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1971.

Douglas, Jack D. (ed.). *Crime and Justice in American Society*. New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1971.

Eldefonso, Edward. *Readings in Criminal Justice*. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1973.

Felkenes, George. *The Criminal Justice System*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1974.

LeGrande, James L. *The Basic Processes of Criminal Justice*. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1973.

Leonard, V. A., and Harry W. More. *The General Administration of Criminal Justice*. Brooklyn: Foundation Press, 1967.

More, Harry W., Jr. (ed.). *Critical Issues in Law Enforcement*. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson, 1972.

A National Strategy to Reduce Crime (A Report by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Newman, Donald J. *Introduction to Criminal Justice*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1975.

Prassel, Frank R. *Introduction to American Criminal Justice*. New York: Harper and Row, 1975.

Quinney, Richard. *Crime and Justice in Society*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1969.

Smith, Alexander, and Harriet Pollack. *Crime and Justice in a Mass Society*. Cambridge: Xerox Publishing, 1972.

Swaton, J. Norman, and Loren Morgan. *Administration of Justice*. New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1975.

Weston, Paul B., and Kenneth M. Wells. *The Administration of Justice*. Second edition. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Course Outline

I. Crime: Its nature and impact
   - A. Crime defined
   - B. Sources of crimes
     1. Constitution
     2. Treaties
     3. Common law
     4. Statutes
     5. Judicial ruling
     6. Administrative regulations
   - C. Civil actions
   - D. Amount and trends in crime
   - E. General comments
     1. Victims of crime
     2. Violent crime
     3. Property crime
     4. Organized crime
     5. Drug abuse
     6. Crimes with no "victim"

II. History of criminal justice system
   - A. Police
     1. Primitive background
     2. Watch and ward—Bow Street Runners, parochial and commercial police
     3. Peel's principles
     4. Evolvement in the U.S.A.

B. Courts
   1. Primitive background
   2. Anglo-Saxon period
   3. American court system development
C. Corrections
   1. Evolvement of philosophy in U.S.A.
   2. State penal institutions
   3. Federal prison system

III. Police—structure and function
A. Police role
   1. Problems and response
   2. External controls
   3. Internal controls
B. Typical structure
   1. Examples
   2. Innovations
      a. Team policing
      b. Police agent
      c. Consolidation
C. Function
   1. Patrol
   2. Investigation
   3. Public services
   4. Traffic
   5. Juvenile offenders
D. Police and community
E. Goals of police organization
   1. Multipurposed
   2. Prevention preferable to repression
   3. Power required
   4. Public support and cooperation required

IV. Federal Constitution, courts, and regulation of police action
A. Duty of court system
   1. Review legislative enactments
   2. Provide check on executive branch
B. Bill of Rights
   1. First eight personal rights
   2. Ninth, tenth, general provisions re: division of power between state and federal
C. Federal exclusionary rule
D. Trend in cases

V. The American court system: jurisdiction, structure, and role
A. Hierarchy of courts and jurisdiction
B. Court scheduling, management, organization
C. Sentencing process
D. The judge
   1. Role
   2. Power
E. Court problems
   1. Delays
   2. Plea bargaining
   3. Equality of justice

VI. Prosecutor/district attorney—public defense
A. Prosecutor
   1. Jurisdictional level
   2. Authority and power
   3. Prosecutor's duties
B. Defense attorney
   1. Sixth Amendment to U.S. Constitution
   2. Importance of defense attorney
   3. History of defense case law
   4. Gideon vs. Wainwright
   5. Public defender system

VII. The trail process
A. Jury
B. Pre-trial proceedings
   1. Methods of release
   2. Warrant application
   3. Hearing and examinations
   4. Arraignment
C. Trial proceedings
D. Sentence
E. Appeal

VIII. The correctional process
A. Philosophy of corrections
   1. Changes in attitudes
   2. Question of deterrence
   3. Retribution vs. rehabilitation
   4. Rights of convicted offenders
B. The corrections institution
   1. General milieu
   2. Custody and discipline
   3. Rehabilitative efforts
      a. Types of programs
      b. Effectiveness
      c. Length of detention
      d. Roles of correctional personnel
C. Function of probation and parole
D. Trends in corrections
   1. Increased use of probation/parole
   2. Institutional programs
      a. Work release
      b. Improved counseling
      c. Better vocational training
      d. Family visitation
   3. Community-based programs
      a. Special problems of misdemeanants
      b. Jail programs

c. Community involvement, volunteers

IX. Juvenile justice process
- A. Philosophy of juvenile justice
  1. Scope of probelm
  2. The dangerous years
  3. Delinquency defined
  4. Changing behavior
- B. Theories of causation
  1. Family
  2. Peer influence
- C. Prevention programs
  1. Schools
  2. Community-based
- D. The adjudication process
- E. Treatment

CRIMINOLOGY
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

The study of deviant behavior as it relates to the definition of crime; crime statistics; theories of crime causation; crime typologies.

Selected Reading Resources

Bloch and Geis. *Man, Crime and Society*. Second Edition. New York: Random House, 1970.

Blumberg, Abraham. *Current Perspectives on Criminal Behavior*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974.

Clinard, Marshall, and Richard Quinney. *Criminal Behavior Systems*. Second Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973.

Gibbons, Don C. *Society, Crime and Criminal Careers*. Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Haskell, Martin, and Lewis Yablonsky. *Criminology: Crime and Criminality*. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1974.

Hood, Roger, and Richard Sparks. *Key Issues in Criminology*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

Knudten, Richard. *Crime in a Complex Society*. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1970.

Lieberman, Jethro K. *How the Government Breaks the Law*. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1973.

Morris, Norval, and Gordon Hawkins. *The Honest Politician's Guide to Crime Control*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970.

Quinney, Richard. *The Social Reality of Crime*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1970.

Radzinowicz, Leon, and Marvin Wolfgang (eds.). *The Criminal in Society*. New York: Basic Books, 1971.

Schafer, Stephen. *Theories in Criminology*. New York: Random House, 1969.

Schur, Edwin. *Crimes Without Victims*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Sykes, Gresham. *Crime and Society*. Second Edition. New York: Random House, 1967.

Course Outline

I. The impact of crime
- A. The significance of crime records, abuses in crime reporting
- B. Undetected crime, extent and nature of crime
- C. Impact of crime upon urban development
- D. Victimology
- E. International comparisons

II. Crime as one form of deviancy
- A. Definition of crimes
- B. Concept of social harm
- C. Variations in social control of deviance
- D. Stigma and social identity

III. The limits of the criminal law
- A. Overcriminalization
- B. Morals offenses
  1. Gambling
  2. Prostitution
  3. Homosexuality
- C. Chemical substance abuse
  1. The prohibition experiment
  2. Penality as treatment
- D. Sex offenses
- E. Economic legislation
- F. The case of abortion

IV. Crime typologies
- A. Variations in typologies
- B. Professional crime
  1. Auto theft
  2. Shoplifting and pilfering
  3. Forgery and fraud
- C. Organized crime
  1. Definitions

2. Nature of criminal actions
3. Extent of existence

D. White collar crime
E. Homicides and assaults
F. Sex offenses
G. Property crime
H. Victimless crime
I. Political crime
1. Motives
2. Specific political crimes

V. Juvenile delinquency
A. Delinquency defined
1. Measures of delinquency
2. Labeling theory
B. Nature of juvenile crime
C. Theories of delinquency causation
D. Gang delinquency

VI. Crime etiology
A. Sociological vs. psychological vs. physiological
B. Theory of conflicting norms
C. Theory of social disorganization
D. Theory of differential association
E. Social structure and anomie
F. Crime and opportunity
1. Crime as normative behavior
2. The responsibility of economic conditions
G. Crime and race
H. Multiple factor approaches

VII. Reactions to criminal behavior
A. Retribution vs. restitution
B. Treatment theories
C. The impact of imprisonment

POLICE PROCESS
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Social and historical settings of the police; police role and career; police discretion; police values and culture; organization and control.

Selected Reading Resources

Ahern, James F. *Police in Trouble*. New York: Hawthorn Books, 1972.

American Bar Association. *The Urban Police Function*. New York: A.B.A., 1972.

Bopp, William (ed.). *Police Administration: Selected Readings*. Boston: Holbrook Press, 1975.

Bordua, David J. (ed.). *The Police, Six Sociological Essays*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967.

Eastman, George C. (ed.). *Municipal Police Administration*. Washington, D.C.: ICMA, 1969.

Munro, Jim L. *Administrative Behavior and Police Organization*. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson, 1974.

Niederhoffer, Arthur, and Abraham Blumberg (eds.). *The Ambivalent Force: Persepectives on the Police*. Waltham, Mass.: Xerox Publishing Co., 1970.

Report on Police (A Report of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Ruchelman, Leonard. *Who Rules the Police*. New York: New York University Press, 1973.

Skolnik, Jerome, and Thomas Gray. *Police in America*. Boston: Educational Associates, 1975.

Skolnik, Jerome H. *Justice Without Trial*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966.

Strecher, Victor G. *The Environment of Law Enforcement*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

Task Force Report: The Police (A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Wilson, James Q. *Varieties of Police Behavior, The Management of Law and Order in Eight Communities*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968.

Wilson, O. W., and Roy C. McClaren. *Police Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974.

Course Outline

I. The police in the criminal justice system
A. The police and the prosecutor
B. The police and the courts
1. The regulatory role of the courts
2. Policy feedback mechanisms
3. Special relations with juvenile courts
C. The police and the correctional system
1. Relations between police and probation/parole officers

2. Implications of community-based corrections

II. Organizing police agencies
   A. Structure
      1. Organizational levels
      2. Organizing by function, time, and place
         a. Units in a police agency
         b. Division of units by time and place
      3. Recommended organizational patterns
   B. Functions of operational units
      1. Patrol
      2. Investigation
      3. Juvenile
      4. Traffic
      5. Vice
      6. Intelligence
      7. Crime prevention
   C. Functions of auxiliary units
   D. Functions of staff units

III. The police role
   A. The service function
      1. Peace keeping
      2. Crime prevention
      3. Juvenile activities
      4. Nuisance calls
   B. Crime control
      1. Repression vs. suppression vs. prevention
      2. Patrol
      3. Investigation
      4. Surveillance
   C. The concept of order-maintenance
   D. Psychological consequences of the police role
      1. Emotional strains
      2. The "crime-fighter" image
      3. The problem of corruption

IV. Police discretion
   A. Historical perspective
   B. Impact of the adjudication process
      1. Role of the prosecutor in determination of police authority
      2. Court-related decisions regarding the propriety of police discretion
   C. Legislative mandate vis à vis police policy
      1. Interpretation of legislative intent
      2. Legislative recognition of police discretion
   D. Context of the police in the executive branch of government
   E. Administrative discretion and enforcement priorities

V. The police as a social institution
   A. Police role in a democracy
   B. Political polarization of the police
   C. The police and minorities
   D. Police control of riots
      1. The police as precipitators
      2. Measured response
   E. Rule of law vs. efficiency
   F. The debate regarding personnel standards

ADJUDICATION PROCESS
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Role and structure of prosecution, public defense, and the courts; basic elements of the substantive criminal law; procedural law and its relation to constitutional guarantees.

Selected Reading Resources

Botein, Bernard, and Murray Gordon. *The Trial of the Future*. New York: Cornerstone Library, 1965.

Chambliss, William, and Robert Seidman. *Law, Order and Power*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1971.

Conyers, Robert W. *Law—Its Nature, Functions and Limits*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

Downie, Leonard, Jr. *Justice Denied*. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1971.

Heymann, Philip, and William Kenety. *The Murder Trial of William Jackson*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1975.

James, Howard. *Crisis in the Courts*. New York: Van Rees Press, 1971.

Kaplan, John. *Criminal Justice: Cases and Materials*. New York: Foundation Press, 1973.

Kerper, Hazel. *Introduction to the Criminal Justice*

System. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1972.

Kinyon, S. *Introduction to Law Study*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1971.

Lewis, Anthony. *Gideon's Trumpet*. New York: Vintage Books, 1964.

Report on Courts (A Report of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Task Force Report: Courts (A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Uviller, H. Richard. *Adjudication*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1975.

Course Outline

I. Legal research
   A. Case briefing
   B. Citations
II. Prosecution
   A. Attorney General, district attorneys, city attorneys
   B. The scope of prosecution discretion
   C. Problems of plea bargaining
   D. Court officer vs. police officer roles
III. Right to counsel
   A. Public defender system
      1. Legal authority
      2. Organization and staffing
   B. Relevant case law
      1. Prior to arraignment
      2. For petty offenses
      3. In the sentencing/correctional process
IV. The use of bail
   A. Relevant case law
   B. Social and political issues
V. Court structure
   A. The dual court system
   B. Courts of limited jurisdiction, courts of record
   C. The appellate structure
      1. Appellate courts as a rule-making system
      2. Incremental change in the law
   D. Court officers
VI. Grand juries
   A. Functions
   B. Proceedings
VII. Judicial process
   A. The adversary system
   B. Accusatory pleadings
   C. Jurisdiction and venue
   D. Arraignment and preliminary examination
   E. Trial
      1. Motions
      2. Role of judge and jury
      3. Jury selection
      4. Issues of fact
      5. Verdict
VIII. Sentencing
   A. Pre-sentence investigations
   B. Judicial discretion
   C. Appropriateness of determinant sentencing
   D. The role of plea bargaining

CORRECTIONS PROCESS
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Post-conviction correction process; the development of correctional philosophy, theory, and practice; a description of institutional operation, programming, and management; community-based corrections; probation and parole.

Selected Reading Resources

Allen, Harry E., and Clifford Simonsen. *Corrections in America*. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1975.

Carth, Robert, Leslie Wilkens, and Daniel Glaser. *Correctional Institutions*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1972.

Coffey, Alan. *Correctional Administration*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

Eldefonso, Edward. *Issues in Corrections*. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1974.

Fox, Vernon E. *Introduction to Corrections*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Glaser, Daniel. *Adult Crime and Social Policy*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Glaser, Daniel. *The Effectiveness of a Prison and*

Parole System. Abridged Edition. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969.

Hartinger, Walter, Edward Eldefonso, and Alan Coffey. *Corrections: A Component of the Criminal Justice System*. Palisades, California: Goodyear, 1973.

Killinger, George, and Paul Cromwell, Jr. *Corrections in the Community*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1974.

Killinger, George G., and Paul F. Cromwell, Jr. *Penology*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1973.

Report on Corrections (A Report of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Sandhu, Harjit S. *Modern Corrections: The Offenders, Therapies and Community Reintegration*. Springfield, Ill: Charles C. Thomas Publisher, 1974.

Task Force Report: Corrections (A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Course Outline

I. Organization of corrections systems
   A. Federal, state, local
   B. Juvenile, adult
II. Philosophical perspectives
   A. Punishment vs. rehabilitation vs. detention
   B. Historical trends
III. Institutional operations
   A. Variations in institutional types
      1. Degree of security
      2. Offender classification
      3. Institutional goals
   B. Custodial considerations
      1. Architectural design limitations
      2. Rules and regulations
      3. Discipline enforcement
      4. Regulation of visitation and correspondence
   C. Conflict between custodial and rehabilitative goals
      1. Dehumanizing process of institutionalization
      2. The role of the custodial officer
IV. Prison society
   A. Reactions to incarceration
   B. Inmate political subculture
   C. Homosexuality
   D. Problems of control
V. Treatment techniques and programs
   A. Therapeutic
      1. Individual and group counseling
      2. Alcohol and drug abuse programs
   B. Education
   C. Vocational training
      1. Employment programs
      2. Technical skill development
      3. Work-release
VI. Community-based facilities
   A. Effective employment of jails
   B. Halfway house operations
   C. Treatment setting and atmosphere
   D. Use of community resources
   E. Staffing patterns—use of volunteers and ex-offenders
VII. Probation and parole
   A. The origins of probation/parole
   B. Investigation, selection, and revocation
   C. Treatment strategies
      1. Conditions of probation/parole
      2. The role of the probation/parole officer
      3. Orientation to employment
VIII. Legal problems
   A. Institutional conditions
   B. Access to courts
   C. First amendment problems
   D. Institutional discipline
   E. Revocation hearings

JUVENILE JUSTICE PROCESS
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Definitions of delinquent behavior; contributing social problems; adolescence as a subculture; the adjudication process for juveniles—philosophy and practice; treatment procedures.

Selected Reading Resources

Aichhorn, August. *Wayward Youth*. New York: The Viking Press, 1963.

Cicourel, Aaron V. *The Social Organization of Juvenile Justice*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1968.

Garabedian, Peter, and Don Gibbons. *Becoming Delinquent: Young Offenders and the Correctional Process*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing, 1970.

Giallombardo, Rose (ed.). *Juvenile Delinquency: A Book of Readings*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966.

Gibbons, Don C. *Delinquent Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Hahn, Paul H. *The Juvenile Offender and the Law*. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson, 1971.

James, Howard. *Children in Trouble*. New York: David McKay, 1969.

Knulten, Richard, and Stephen Schafer. *Juvenile Delinquency: An Introduction*. New York: Random House, 1970.

Kobetz, Richard W., and Betty Bosarge. *Juvenile Justice Administration*. Gaithersburg, Md.: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1973.

Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime (A Report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Trojanowicz, Robert C. *Juvenile Delinquency: Concepts and Control*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Course Outline

I. Scope of the delinquency problem
   - A. Historical perspective
   - B. Nature of juvenile offenses
     1. Status offenses
     2. Juvenile drug abuse
     3. Criminal code violations
   - C. Delinquency typologies

II. Adolescent psychological adjustment
   - A. Role conflict
   - B. Family relations
     1. Membership status
     2. Value rejection
     3. Trends in family structure
   - C. Development of self-concept, identity crisis
   - D. Strengthening of peer relations

III. Theories of delinquency causation
   - A. Sociological
     1. Merton
     2. Sutherland
     3. Cohen
     4. Matza
     5. Thrasher
     6. Durkheim
   - B. Psychological
     1. Aichhorn
     2. Sheldon and Glueck
     3. Rechless
   - C. The problem family

IV. Responses to delinquency
   - A. Programming in the public schools
   - B. Social work and social welfare programming
   - C. Juvenile justice system
   - D. Labeling theory

V. Police role in delinquency
   - A. Range of police dispositions
   - B. Specialized youth units
   - C. Neglect and abuse cases
   - D. Police involvement in delinquency prevention programs

VI. Juvenile court
   - A. Historical development
   - B. Philosophy
   - C. Jurisdiction
   - D. Referral process
   - E. Adjudicative process
     1. Administrative vs. adversarial
     2. Juvenile rights (relevant case law)
     3. Disposition

VII. Rehabilitative programming
   - A. Probation
     1. Individual and group counseling
     2. Social casework—family treatment
     3. Therapy programs
   - B. Institutionalization
   - C. Community-centered treatment
     1. Halfway houses
     2. Foster homes
     3. Use of volunteers

VIII. Delinquency prevention
   - A. Employment
   - B. Schools
   - C. Activity programs

ANALYSIS OF POLICE OPERATIONS

Course Guidelines

Catalogue Description

Problems of police organization and management; the allocation of police resources; information systems; community-relations concerns; determinants of police policy.

Selected Reading Resources

Alex, Nicholas. *Black in Blue*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969.

Bloch, Peter B., and David Specht. *Neighborhood Team Policing* (An LEAA Prescriptive Package). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Felkenes, George, and Paul Whisenand. *Police Patrol Operations*. Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing, 1972.

Knapp Commission Report on Police Corruption. New York: George Braziller, 1973.

Niederhoffer, Arthur. *Behind the Shield: The Police in Urban Society*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1967.

Opportunities for Improving Productivity in Police Service (A Report of the Advisory Group on Productivity in Law Enforcement). Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Productivity, 1973.

Perry, David C. *Police in the Metropolis*. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing, 1975.

Report on Police (A Report of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Saunders, Charles. *Upgrading the American Police*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Sherman, Lawrence W., Catherine Milton, and Thomas Kelly. *Team Policing: Seven Case Studies*. Washington, D.C.: The Police Foundation, 1973.

Sweeney, Thomas J., and William Ellingsworth. *Issues in Police Patrol*. Washington, D.C.: The Police Foundation, 1973.

Task Force Report: The Police (A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Whisenand, Paul M., and R. Fred Ferguson. *The Managing of Police Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Wolfle, Joan L., and John F. Heaphy. *Readings on Productivity in Policing*. Washington, D.C.: The Police Foundation, 1975.

Also: Research Monographs of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice and The Police Foundation.

Course Outline

I. Decision-making context of police administration
   A. Dual patronage of the police
   B. Legal constraints
   C. Political contingencies
   D. Inter-organizational considerations
II. Staff administration
   A. Planning and research
      1. Importance of objectives
      2. Types of plans
         a. Management
         b. Operational
         c. Procedural
      3. Innovation and experimentation
   B. Budgeting
      1. Nature of police budget
      2. Types of budgets
      3. Planning through the budget
   C. Inspection and control
      1. Authoritative and staff inspection
      2. Use of intelligence units
      3. Prevention of corruption
   D. Police-community relations
      1. Normal public relations efforts
      2. Special programs
III. Evaluation of police programs
   A. Establishing objective hierarchies
   B. Relating programs to objectives
   C. Determination of performance criteria, cost effective considerations
   D. Analysis of program alternatives
   E. Identifying program impact
   F. Establishing organization structure to accomplish policy formulation
IV. Relation of personnel to policy
   A. Improvement of personnel acquisition
   B. Identification, development, and improvement of career path and job enrichment practices; participative management
   C. Increasing the effectiveness of personnel management practices; evaluation of personnel effectiveness
V. Specific programming considerations
   A. Crime control functions
      1. Crime-specific programming
      2. Agency consolidation
      3. Disorder prevention
      4. Resource allocation among prevention/repression/apprehension techniques
   B. Social service functions
      1. Team policing
      2. Detoxification centers
      3. Crisis intervention units

CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Fundamentals of investigation; crime scene search and recording; collection and preservation of physical evidence; scientific aids; modus operandi; sources of information; interview and interrogation; follow-up and case preparation.

Selected Reading Resources

Arthur, Richard O. *The Scientific Investigator*. Springfield, Ill.: C. C. Thomas, 1965.

Gerber, Samuel, and Oliver Schroeder. *Criminal Investigation and Interrogation*. Revised Edition. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson, 1972.

Horgan, John J. *Criminal Investigation*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974.

Inbau, Fred, and John Reid. *Criminal Interrogation and Confessions*. Revised Edition. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.

International Association of Chiefs of Police. *Criminal Investigation*. Gaithersburg, Maryland: Professional Standards Division, 1971.

Klotter, John, and Carl Meier. *Criminal Evidence for Police*. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson, 1971.

O'Hara, Charles. *Fundamentals of Criminal Investigation*. Second Edition. Springfield, Ill.: C. C. Thomas, 1970.

Thorwald, Jurgen. *The Century of the Detective*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1965.

Weston, Paul B., and Kenneth M. Wells. *Criminal Investigation: Basic Perspectives*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Course Outline

I. Principles of investigation
   A. Objectivity
   B. Concept of proof
      1. Doctrine of reasonable doubt
      2. Legal significance of evidence
   C. Basic techniques
      1. Information
      2. Interrogation
      3. Instrumentation
II. The nature of evidence
   A. Characteristics and sources of testimonial evidence
   B. Charactertistics and sources of physical evidence
III. Obtaining testimonial evidence
   A. Locating witnesses
   B. Use of informants
      1. Cultivation
      2. Confidentiality
   C. Surveillance techniques
      1. Audio
      2. Visual
   D. Interview and interrogation
      1. Physical settings
      2. Establishing rapport
      3. Techniques of questioning
      4. Recording information
      5. Testing for credibility
IV. Obtaining physical evidence
   A. Crime scene search
   B. Collection and preservation
      1. Standards of evidence
      2. Markings and packaging
V. Employment of scientific analysis
   A. Forensic
   B. Forensic toxicology
   C. Photography
   D. Fingerprints
   E. Ballistics
   F. Hair and fibers
   G. Dust and particles
   H. Voiceprint
   I. Polygraph
   J. Castings and moldings
   K. Radiation
   L. Handwriting analysis
VI. Investigation of specific offenses
   A. Methodologies
   B. Types of associated evidence
   C. Case preparation
   D. Special techniques relevant to homicide, robbery, rape, burglary, etc.

CRIMINAL LAW
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

The legal definition of crime and defenses; purposes and functions of the substantive criminal law; historical foundations; the limits of the criminal law; focus upon the case study approach.

Selected Reading Resources

Day, Frank D. *Criminal Law and Society*. Springfield, Ill.: C. C. Thomas, 1964.

Dix, George E., and M. Michael Sharlot. *Basic Criminal Law: Cases and Materials*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1974.

Donnelly, Richard C. *Criminal Law*. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1962.

Inbau, Fred E., James R. Thompson, and Andre Moenssers. *Criminal Law: Cases and Comments*. Mineola, N.Y.: Foundation Press, 1973.

Kadish, Sanford, and Morrad Paulson. *Criminal Law and Its Processes: Cases and Materials*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1969.

Kaplan, John. *Marijuana: The New Prohibition*. New York: World Publishing, 1970.

LaFave, Wayne R., and Austin Scott. *Criminal Law*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1972.

Loewy, Arnold. *Criminal Law in a Nutshell*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1975.

Perkins, Rollin M. *Perkins on Criminal Law*. Brooklyn, N.Y.: Foundation Press, 1966.

Sullivan, Francis C., et al. *The Administration of Criminal Justice*. New York: The Foundation Press, 1969.

Course Outline

I. Philosophy of criminal law
   - A. The creation of norms
   - B. Criminal law theory
   - C. The criminal act
   - D. The mental element in crime

II. Historical development of criminal law
   - A. Development of common law
   - B. Statutory law, model penal codes
   - C. Stare decisis
   - D. Malum in se vs. malum prohibitum
   - E. Substantive vs. procedural law
   - F. Criminal vs. civil liability

III. The role of legislatures
   - A. Common vs. statutory law
   - B. Legislation and interest groups

IV. The general provisions of criminal law
   - A. Principles, accomplices, accessories
   - B. Corpus delecti
   - C. Variations in severity
     1. Felony
     2. Misdemeanor
     3. Infraction
   - D. Included offenses
   - E. Elements of crime
     1. Act and intent
     2. Proximate cause
   - F. Capacity
     1. The mental element
     2. Ignorance of the law
     3. Mistake of law and fact
     4. Malice
     5. Duress
     6. Intoxication
     7. Infancy
     8. Insanity

V. Offenses against the person
   - A. Homicide
     1. Murder I—premeditated
     2. Murder II—without premeditation
        - a. Elements involved
        - b. Proof of intent
     3. Manslaughter
        - a. Voluntary
        - b. Involuntary
     4. Negligent Homicide
   - B. Assaults
   - C. Rape
     1. Forcible
     2. Statutory
   - D. Robbery
   - E. Extortion
   - F. Felony murder doctrine

VI. Offenses against property
   - A. Larceny
   - B. Breaking and entering
   - C. Embezzlement
   - D. Arson
   - E. Forgery
   - F. Receiving stolen property
   - G. Malicious destruction

VII. Morals offenses
   - A. Drug possession
   - B. Prostitution
   - C. Pornography
   - D. Sex offenses

VIII. Uncompleted criminal conduct
   - A. Attempt
   - B. Solicitation
   - C. Criminal combinations
   - D. Conspiracy
   - E. Parties to crime
   - F. Aiding and abetting

IX. Codes and ordinances
   - A. Health and safety
   - B. Nuisance offenses

CRIMINAL EVIDENCE AND PROCEDURE
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Constitutional and procedural considerations affecting arrest, search and seizure, post-conviction treatment; origin, development, philosophy, constitutional basis of evidence; kinds and degrees of evidence and rules governing admissibility; judicial decisions interpreting individual rights and case studies; focus upon the case study approach.

Selected Reading Resources

Donigan, Robert L., and Edward Fisher. *The Evidence Handbook*. Evanston, Ill.: The Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, 1969.

Fisher, Edward C. *Search and Seizure*. Evanston, Ill.: The Traffic Institute, Northwestern University.

Kamisar, Yale, et al. *Basic Criminal Procedure*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1974.

Kauper, Paul G., and Henry Butzel. *Constitutional Law: Cases and Materials*. Fourth Edition. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1972.

Louisell, David W., John Kaplan, and Jon R. Waltz. *Principles of Evidence and Proof*. Mineola, New York: The Foundation Press, Inc., 1968.

Maddox, James L., Jr. *Constitutional Law: Cases and Comments*. St. Paul: West Publishing, 1974.

Maguire, John M., et al. *Evidence*. Brooklyn: Foundation Press, Inc. Fifth Edition, 1965, with 1970 supplement.

Miller, Frank W., et al. *Cases and Materials on Criminal Justice Administration*. New York: The Foundation Press, 1971.

Remington, Frank, et al. *Criminal Justice Administration*. New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969.

Rothstein, Paul F. *Evidence in a Nutshell*. St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Co., 1970.

Sowle, Claude R. *Police Power and Individual Freedom*. Aldridge Publishing Company, 1962.

Sullivan, Francis, and Paul Hardin. *Evidence*. New York: The Foundation Press, 1968.

Wienreb, Lloyd L. *Criminal Process*. Second Edition. Mineola, N.Y.: Foundation Press, 1974.

Course Outline

I. The application of the Bill of Rights
   A. Due process and equality of protection
   B. Applicability to the States

II. The exclusionary rule
   A. Historical context
   B. Alternatives to the rule
      1. Tort liability of the police—the Federal Civil Rights alternative
      2. Contempt of court
      3. The civilian review board
   C. The "police the police" concept
   D. "Fruit of the poisonous tree" doctrine

III. Police participation in criminal conduct
   A. Entrapment
   B. The police informant
   C. The "false friend"

IV. Arrest, search and seizure
   A. Probable cause for arrest
   B. Delay prior to arrest
   C. Knowledge of the nature of the offense
   D. Entry to effect arrests
   E. Extent of search incident to arrest
   F. Automobile searches
   G. The consent search
   H. Administrative searches
   I. Police custody and the "inventory search"
   J. Emergency searches—the exigent circumstances rule
   K. Electronic searches
   L. Stop and frisk
   M. Criteria relevant to arrest and search warrants

V. Interrogations and confessions
   A. The test of inherent coercion and involuntariness
   B. The meaning of "Custodial Interrogation" as prescribed in Miranda vs. Arizona
   C. The effect of delay in taking the arrestee before a judicial magistrate
   D. Obtaining physical evidence from the person

VI. Eye witness identification procedures
   A. Police lineups
   B. Photographic identification—the "Mug Book" problems

VII. Rights of convicted offenders
   A. Appeal
   B. During incarceration

C. Parole petition
D. Probation/parole revocation

VIII. Evidence as a concept
A. Classification of evidence
B. Presumptions
C. Judicial notice
D. Witnesses
1. Competency and credibility
2. Privileged communication
E. The hearsay rule
F. Physical evidence
1. Chain of evidence
2. Common types and their limitations
G. Circumstantial evidence
1. Character of defendant and witnesses
2. Motive and capability
H. Best evidence rules
I. Right of discovery

IX. A comparative evaluation of the American legal system

ANALYSIS OF CORRECTIONS OPERATIONS
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Problems of management of the correctional process; programming, security, information systems, reports, case management, evaluation of progress; custody and discipline as they relate to rehabilitative efforts; community adjustment facilities; problems of probation and parole.

Selected Reading Resources

American Bar Association. *Standards Relating to Post-Conviction Remedies* (1968) and *Standards Relating to Probation* (1970). Reports of the Project on Standards for Criminal Justice. New York: American Bar Association.

Carter, Robert, and Leslie Wilkins (eds.). *Probation and Parole: Selected Readings*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1970.

Conrad, John P. *Crime and Its Treatment*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1965.

Cressey, Donald (ed.). *The Prison: Studies in Institutional Organization and Change*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961.

Halleck, Seymour. *Psychiatry and the Dilemma of Crime*. New York: Harper and Row, 1967.

Menninger, Karl. *The Crime of Punishment*. New York: Viking Press, 1968.

Newman, Charles. *Sourcebook on Probation and Parole*. Springfield, Ill.: C. C. Thomas, 1968.

Peterson, David M., and Charles W. Thomas. *Corrections: Problems and Prospects*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

Report on Corrections (A Report of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Warren, Marguerite. *Correctional Treatment in Community Settings: A Report of Current Research*. National Institute of Mental Health. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972.

Wicks, Robert J. *Correctional Psychology*. San Francisco: Canfield Press, 1974.

Wilkins, Leslie T. *Evaluation of Penal Measures*. New York: Random House, 1969.

See also: Reports of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, and U.S. Bureau of Prisons.

Course Outline

I. Behavior theory applied to corrections
A. Prediction of criminal behavior
B. Behavior modification techniques
C. Case management and program evaluation
D. Special problem cases
1. Alcohol and drug abuser
2. Mental inbalance, the violent inmate
3. White collar criminals
4. Sex deviants
5. "Political" prisoners
E. Evaluative research on treatment effectiveness
1. Recidivism as a function of crime typologies, age, and criminal history
2. Length of sentence issues, "optimum time"
3. Limitations on treatment evaluation

II. Institutional management
A. Police enactment process
B. Security as a pervasive concern
1. Disciplinary policy

2. Grievance procedures
3. Inmate privileges
4. Prison riots
5. Concerns of custodial staff

C. Inmate-staff interaction
1. Inmate involvement in prison management
2. Maintenance of consistency/fairness in policy
3. Establishing the preeminence of treatment

D. Management of prison industries

III. Relation of personnel to policy
A. Conflict between treatment and custodial staff
B. Improvement of personnel standards
C. Development of career path and job enrichment practices for custodial staff
1. The "paraprofessional" concept
2. Necessary training
3. Problems in evaluating performance of treatment functions

D. Psychological adjustment to institutional culture

IV. Community programs
A. Diversionary programs—alcohol, drug, and mental health organizations
B. Employment problems
1. Work furlough
2. Employer cooperation

C. Enhancing family relationships
1. Welfare assistance
2. Family counseling

D. Community relations
1. Police cooperation
2. Community acceptance
3. Related community resources

E. Use of community correction centers for preventive purposes
F. Staffing patterns

V. Probation/parole supervision
A. Expectations of the client
B. Role conflict for probation/parole officers
C. Caseloads and treatment
D. Use of volunteers

VI. Corrections cost analysis
A. Costs of institutionalization
B. Cost-benefit analysis of treatment programming
C. Diversion of resources
1. Lowering institutional populations
2. Subsidy systems
3. Intensified treatment programming

CRIMINAL JUSTICE ORGANIZATION THEORY
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Basic knowledge of organizational function, structure, processes, and behavior; theory related to practice applied to the administration of the justice process; comprehension of administrative phenomena.

Selected Reading Resources

Bennis, Warren G. *Changing Organizations*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

Caplow, Theodore. *Principles of Organization*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964.

Coffey, Alan R. *Administration of Criminal Justice: A Management Systems Approach*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1974.

Criminal Justice System (A Report of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Etzioni, Amitai. *Modern Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

Likert, Rensis. *New Patterns of Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

Lynch, Ronald G. *The Police Manager*. Boston: Holbrook Press, 1975.

March, James G. (ed.). *Handbook of Organizations*. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965.

McGregor, Douglas. *Leadership and Motivation*. Cambridge, Mass.: The M.I.T. Press, 1966.

Pfiffner, John M., and Frank D. Sherwood. *Administrative Organization*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.

Powers, Stanley, F. Gerald Brown, and David Arnold (eds.). *Developing the Municipal Organization*. Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association, 1974.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report:*

The Police. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report: The Courts*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report: Corrections*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report: Science and Technology*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Course Outline

I. Organizational purposes
   A. Division of labor
   B. Source of authority
   C. Clarified relationships
   D. Weber's postulates
II. Functions of organizational levels
   A. Administration
   B. Management
   C. Supervision
   D. Operations
III. Basic principles or organization
   A. Unity of command
   B. Span of control
      1. Controlling variables
      2. Geometric progresssion of relationships
   C. Division of labor
      1. Criteria for division
      2. Specialization
   D. Line and staff organization
      1. Functions
      2. Types of staff
      3. Conflict between line and staff
IV. Development of organization theory
   A. Scientific management
   B. Principles approach
   C. Human relations school
   D. Structuralist
V. Policy formulation in criminal justice
   A. Intergrationist vs. political pluralist public administration models
   B. The issues of bureaucratic independence
   C. Obstacles to formulation of objectives in criminal justice organizations
   D. Characteristics of effective objectives hierarchies
   E. Influences of environment upon objectives
      1. Political considerations
      2. Goal succession
   F. Relating policy to the budget
      1. Types of budgets
      2. Characteristics of program budgeting
      3. Obstacles to establishing true PPB systems in criminal justice
   G. Systemic policy formulation in criminal justice
VI. Organizational control
   A. The "organization man"
   B. Employee self-interest
VII. The role of informal organization
   A. The concept of organizational overlays
   B. Effects on communication
VIII. Managing organizational change
   A. Equilibrium concept
   B. Resistance to change
      1. Causes
      2. Remedies
   C. Characteristics of organizational planning units
IX. Personnel productivity theory
   A. Major tenets of motivation management theory
   B. Theory x vs. theory y management styles
      1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs
      2. M.B.O. concepts
      3. Participative management
      4. Job enrichment
   C. Applications to criminal justice positions
X. Information system development
   A. Principles of cybernetics
   B. Security and privacy

SECURITY SYSTEMS
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

The role of security and the security industry in criminal justice; administrative, personnel, and physical aspects of the security field; loss prevention management in proprietary and governmental institutions; variations in physical security systems.

Selected Reading Resources

Cressey, Donald. *Other People's Money*. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1953.

Curtis, Bob. *Security Control: External Theft* and *Security Control: Internal Theft*. New York: Chain Store Age Books, 1971.

Department of the Army. *Physical Security* (FM 19–30). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971.

Healy, Richard J., and Timothy J. Walsh. *Industrial Security Management: A Cost Effective Approach*. Washington, D.C.: American Management Association, 1971.

Hemphill, Charles F. *Security for Business and Industry*. Homewood, Ill.: Dow-Jones Irwin, 1971.

Kakalik, James, and Sorrell Wildhorn. *Private Police in the United States: A Summary of Findings and Recommendations*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971.

National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. *Report on Community Crime Prevention*. Washington, D.C.: Goverment Printing Office, 1973.

Newman, Oscar. *Defensible Space*. New York: MacMillan, 1973.

Post, Richard, and Arthur Kingsbury. *Security Administration: An Introduction*. Second Edition. Springfield, Ill.: C.C. Thomas, 1973.

Pratt, Lester A. *Embezzlement Controls for Business Enterprises*. Baltimore: Fidelity and Deposit Co., 1974.

Schnire, T. *Emergencies—Casualty Organization and Treatment*. Springfield, Ill.: C.C. Thomas, 1962.

Small Business Administration. *Preventing Embezzlement* (SBA Small Marketers Aid #151, 1973) and *Preventing Employee Pilferage* (SBA Management Aid for Small Manufacturers #209). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.

Smigel, Erwin O. *Crimes Against Bureaucracy*. New York: Van Nostrand Rinehold Co., 1970.

Sutherland, Edwin H. *White Collar Crime*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.

U.S. Department of Justice. *The Nature, Impact, and Prosecution of White Collar Crime*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970.

Weaver, Leon H. *Industrial Personnel Security*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1966.

Weaver, Leon H. "Security and Protection Systems." *Encyclopedia Britannica*, Volume 16, pp. 453–455, 1974.

See also: Reports of the National Institute for Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, such as *Crime and the Physical City, Urban Design, Security and Crime*, and *Architectural Design for Crime Prevention*, as well as the following journals: *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Security Management*, and *Security World*.

Course Outline

I. Relation of security systems to crime prevention
   - A. White collar crime
     1. Pilferage
     2. Embezzlement
   - B. Street crime deterrence
     1. Target hardening concept
     2. Dual responsibility of public and proprietary interests
     3. Statistics relevant to success of security measures
   - C. Political crime
     1. Protection of national defense interests
     2. Personnel security clearances
     3. Protection of physical sites

II. Personnel security systems
   - A. Investigations and clearances
   - B. Classified information control
   - C. Internal inspection and audit processes
   - D. Personnel data banks

III. Physical security systems
   - A. Facility design
     1. Natural, structural, and human barriers
     2. Safety and fire protection
     3. Design of residential sturctures
        - a. Multi-family dwellings—defensible space
        - b. Single dwelling security
   - B. Lighting
   - C. Alarm systems
     1. Television/camera
     2. Compression/pressure
     3. Electric circuit
     4. Sound/vibration
     5. Motion detection
     6. Light base interruption
   - D. Vital materials storage
     1. Safes
     2. Vaults and cabinets
   - E. Locks

1. Classifications
2. Limitations

F. Shoplifting control
1. Surveillance systems
2. Electronic alarms
3. Auditing employee involvement

IV. Proprietory Organization for Security
A. Functional activities
B. Effects on operations

V. Relevant legal basis for proprietary security
A. Limitations on proprietary security personnel
B. Statutes related to national defense
C. Building/construction security ordinances

VI. Law enforcement agency responsibilities
A. Premise surveys
B. Public information/admonition

COMMUNITY RELATIONS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Problems in citizen relations; treatment of victims, witnesses, and jurors; citizen involvement in the criminal justice process; community resources related to criminal justice programming.

Selected Reading Resources

Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. *Community Crime Prevention*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973.

Berkeley, George E. *The Democratic Policeman*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1969.

Brandstatter, A. F., and Louis A. Radelet. *Police-Community Relations*. Beverly Hills, California: Glencoe Press, 1968.

Coffey, Alan, Edward Eldefonso, and Walter Hartiner. *Human Relations—Law Enforcement in a Changing Community*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.

Curry, J. E., and Glen D. King. *Race Tensions and the Police*. Springfield, Ill.: C. C. Thomas, 1967.

Martin, John M. *Delinquency Today: A Guide for Community Action*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.

Neiderhoffer, Arthur, and Alexander Smith. *New Directions in Police Community Relations*. San Francisco: Rinehart Press, 1974.

Portune, Robert G. *Changing Adolescent Attitude Toward Police*. Cincinnati, Ohio: W. H. Anderson Co., 1971.

Radelet, Louis A. *The Police and the Community*. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1973.

Trojanowicz, Robert C., John M. Trojanowicz, and Forrest Moss. *Community Based Crime Prevention*. Palisades, Calif.: Goodyear Publishing, 1974.

Trojanowicz, Robert C., and Samuel Dixon. *Criminal Justice and the Community*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Printice-Hall, 1974.

Course Outline

I. Democratic justice systems
A. The concept of community service
B. Necessity of maintaining positive community relations
1. Relation to crime resolution
2. Relation to civil disobedience
C. Implications of professionalism

II. Citizen treatment
A. Improving the treatment of victims and witnesses
B. Jury selection and management
C. Handling citizen complaints
D. Equal treatment issues
1. Delay in trial
2. Plea bargaining
3. Adequate counsel
4. Enforcement bias

III. Impact of social problems
A. Urbanization and depersonalization
B. Minority group relations
1. The civil rights movement
2. Barriers to effective communication
C. Relations with the "youth community"
1. The problem of drugs
2. Police and juvenile court involvement in the schools
3. Campus unrest
D. Militant and dissident organizations
E. Political and racial disturbances
1. Measured reaction
2. Role of the courts

IV. Formal community relations programming

A. Media relations
B. Community relations institutes
C. Crime prevention programming
   1. Neighborhood organizations
   2. Target hardening
      a. Property identification
      b. Premise surveys
      c. Information programs
   3. Volunteers in corrections programming

V. Relations with auxiliary services
   A. Social service bureau
   B. Educational institutions
   C. Community improvement programs
   D. Drug abuse and alcohol centers

INDEPENDENT STUDY
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Surveys and applied research as approved by student's major professor.

Additional Explanation

This course is intended to be an individualized course of reading, and in certain instances limited empirical research, for students deemed capable. As such, it provides an opportunity for students to explore specific topics relevant to either general criminal justice issues or problems peculiar to one component of the system. Thus, a student may be provided with some opportunity for focusing his or her program upon a specific component of the system if that is deemed desirable.

It is recommended that fairly rigid standards and controls be applied to the administration of independent study. Fist of all, it would not appear appropriate that any student enroll in the course carrying less than a "B" average. Second, there should be firm agreement prior to enrollemnt in the course as to the precise nature of the student's project; i.e., independent study should not be used as a filler whenever the scheduling of regular courses is not convenient during a particular semester. Third, students should be required to submit a prospectus outlining the research project in advance of enrollment. A prospectus should include (a) the rationale for the pursuit of a student's particular topic; (b) a reasonably thorough description of the problem to be investigated; (c) a list of reading resources. Fourth, no more than three credits of independent study ought to be acceptable toward meeting the requirements of the baccalaureate degree.

SPECIAL ISSUES IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Forum for special course offerings focusing upon special issues in criminal justice by visiting instructors or regular faculty.

Additional Explanatior

The Special Issues course is designed to provide some flexibility in the academic program by allowing faculty members from time to time to offer a course which addresses an issue, problem, or topic which is not included in the regular curriculum. A Special Issues section might be offered not only be regular Criminal Justice faculty, but also by faculty of other units of a college, or guest instructors who might be at a college for a semester or more. Special Issues might also be used as a means to teach a prototype offering of a course in the process of consideration for incorporation into the regular curriculum. Used in this manner, the course listing provides a means to attempt innovation in academic programming without the rigor of processing "permanent" course changes which might only have to be withdrawn the next year. The course is also envisioned as being a means to involve students in a team approach to particular research projects as occasions might arise to do so. As was the case with independent study, this course should be limited to more capable students with enrollment by prior permission by the instructor only.

RESEARCH IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Interaction of theory, research, and practice in the criminal justice process; purposes and limits of research; introduction to research design, data collection, analytic techniques, data processing resources, and preparation of research reports.

Selected Reading Resources

Babbie, Earl R. *Survey Research Methods*. Belmont, Ca.: Wadsworth, 1973.

Blumstein, Alfred, et al. *Research, Development, Test, and Evaluation on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice*. Institute for Defense Analyses, 1968.

Havelock, Ronald G. *Planning for Innovation Through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge*. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1971.

Hirschi, Travis, and Honan Selvin. *Delinquency Research*. New York: The Free Press, 1967.

Lunden, Walter A. *Statistics on Delinquents and Delinquency*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. *Crime and Its Impact: An Assessment*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. *Task Force Report: Science and Technology*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

Ross, Joel E. *Management by Information System*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Simon, Julian L. *Basic Research Methods in Social Science*. New York: Random House, 1969.

Wilkins, Leslie. *Evaluation of Penal Measures*. New York: Random House, 1969.

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration Monographs: *The Change Process in Criminal Justice, Program Planning Techniques, Criminal Justice Research, Evaluation in Criminal Justice*, and other specific research reports.

Course Outline

I. The development of theory
   A. Philosophy of science
   B. Empirical methods
   C. Value of research to criminal justice
   D. Theory building
      1. The use of models
      2. Hypothesis testing
   E. The role of statistics
II. Types of research
   A. Exploratory vs. descriptive vs. causal
   B. Survey vs. observational vs. historical
III. Research designs
   A. Operational definitions
   B. Independent vs. dependent variables
   C. Sampling considerations
   D. Sources of bias
      1. Sampling error
      2. Researcher effects
      3. Variability over time
   E. Practical limitations
IV. Research plans
   A. Criteria of good hypotheses
   B. Measures
      1. Access to hard data
      2. Use of questionnaires and interviews
   C. Research subjects
      1. Obtaining subject cooperation
      2. Protecting subjects
      3. Feedback of results
   D. Data analysis
V. Research reports
   A. Statement of problem
   B. Review of literature
      1. Extent of review
      2. Literature searches
      3. Proper citation
   C. Description of design
   D. Data presentation and analysis
      1. Use of tables
      2. Limiting conclusions
   E. Summary
VI. Problems in correlational research
   A. "Third factor" variables
   B. Multi-factor correlations
   C. Interaction between dependent and independent measures
VII. Statistical inference
   A. Probability
   B. Central tendency and dispersion
   C. Normal distributions
   D. Examples of statistical techniques

FIELD PRACTICUM EXPERIENCE
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Planned program of observation in selected criminal justice agencies representing the major components of the system.

Additional Explanation

Like many other programs in higher education, the field of criminal justice can be much more meaningfully understood with actual observation and participation in the process. The literature addressing problems in criminal justice education is replete with ministrations from practitioners regarding the ivory tower nature of educational programming. This criticism is not without merit. It is true that graduates from many baccalaureate programs leave with a degree in criminal justice without really knowing what a "real-life" criminal looks like. A field practicum experience is intended to overcome the problems of being able to meaningfully apply theory to practice in the classroom through requiring students to observe criminal justice processes in a planned program which requires their evaluation of those processes.

It is important to recognize, however, that such a program requires a great deal of effort on the part of involved criminal justice agencies. If the Field Practicum Experience course is to be successful, it is imperative that the cooperation of all key criminal justice agencies in the vicinity of a college be obtained. If that cooperation cannot be obtained, the viability of offering this course is open to serious question. It is recommended that the following characteristics apply to the design of the Field Practicum Experience:

1. The student should be required to enroll for either 6 or 12 credits, not any variable number up to 12 credits. Enrollment for 6 credits would occur for students desiring to enroll in the course during a summer half semester; enrollment during a full semester merits 12 credits.

2. The program requires participation at 40 hours per week for the complete half or full semester. As such, students should not enroll in other courses during their completion of the Field Practicum Experience; i.e., it is a full-time endeavor.

3. Students should be required to serve with agencies representing at least two of the three major components of the criminal justice system. Practical considerations may prevent students from serving with all three components of the system since, by the nature of their organization, courts, prosecutors' offices, and public defender offices may have difficulty in accompanying the volume of students involved.

4. Students should be required to serve only with those agencies with whom formal, regular arrangements for Field Practicum Experience exist.

5. Students should be required to submit weekly reports describing their activities during the time period involved. Some analysis of the activities might also be required on the weekly report.

6. Experience indicates that a Field Practicum Experience program will not be successful without careful monitoring by faculty. Unfortunately, even though it might appear the contrary, such a program does not "run itself." Numerous problems arise requiring time-consuming attention for resolution. Coordination of Field Practicum Experience should therefore not be delegated to secretarial staff or be made a mere tag-along assignment for a faculty member. It is major responsibility and should be considered as such.

SEMINARS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE MANAGEMENT
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Workshops designed for personnel staffing management positions in the criminal justice system; focus upon solutions to particular administrative problems.

Additional Explanation

The management seminar listing is designed as an academic rubric through which administrative and management training offered to in-service personnel may be translated into academic credit for those enrolled in a degree program. Enrollment in the seminars should be limited to in-service personnel occupying positions of responsibility in the criminal justice system. The enrollment of pre-service students in management seminars is strongly discour-

aged. Criminal justice practitioners should be permitted to enroll for up to 15 seminar credits toward meeting the baccalaureate requirements; i.e., the management seminars should be allowed as a method to meet most of the criminal justice elective requirements for the degree. The seminar series is not envisioned as a disiunctive set of workshops addressing various and sundry issues in criminal justice, but rather as a cohesive management development program. For additional explanation, see the introductory comments to the presentation of the model curriculum.

Some of the topics which might be appropriately included are: general supervisory concepts for criminal justice, program development and evaluation methods, personnel administation, planning methods and techniques, organizational renewal, employee motivation, problem solving and decision making, management by objectives, fiscal administration, policy development and explication, criminal justice system interaction problems.

EVALUATION OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM
Course Guideline

Catalogue Description

Discussion and evaluation of criminal justice policies and practices with a focus upon crime prevention as the goal of the system; presentations by criminal justice officials; evaluation of career opportunities; preparation of undergraduate senior research paper.

Additional Explanation

"Evaluation of the Criminal Justice System" is envisioned as a capstone course to the baccalaureate academic program. As such, it accomplishes several purposes as described in the catalogue description above. It is recommended that a significant portion of the class time be spent analyzing problem solving in criminal justice as attempted through LEAA and other federal programming. A senior research paper is envisioned as the primary requirement for the course, and should be of appropriate quality.

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

SCHOOL OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE
College of Social Science
Michigan State University
E. Lansing, Michigan 48824

QUESTIONNAIRE

Police Recruit Educational Background Analysis

Introduction

Please answer the following questions utilizing the appropriate code number, writing it on the line to the left of the question. If you respond by the category "other," please briefly explain the response.

____ 1. With what type of agency are you employed?
1. Municipal
2. County (Sheriff)
3. State Police or Highway Patrol
4. Other: _____

____ 2. What is the size of the agency in terms of authorized sworn personnel?
1. Less than 50
2. 50 to 199
3. 200 to 499
4. Over 500

____ 3. What was your starting annual salary level?
1. Under $7000
2. $7000 to $7999
3. $8000 to $8999
4. $9000 to $9999
5. $10,000 to $10,999
6. $11,000 to $11,999
7. $12,000 to $12,999
8. Over $13,000

____ 4. Your level of education:
1. High school or GED
2. Less than one year of college
3. Completion of one but less than two years of college
4. Completion of two but less than four years of college
5. Completion of four or more years of college

____ 5. Prior to your present employment, were you employed *full-time* as a police officer in any other police agency?
1. Yes
2. No

____ 6. How close is your employing agency to what you would consider to be your "home town:" (if a state police agency, consider its location to be that of your present assignment)?
1. Within 50 miles 2. 51 to 100 miles 3. Over 101 miles

7. A number of factors interacting in a complex way contribute to a decision to seek employment with a particular agency. However, some considerations are invariably more important than others. Would you rank order the following considerations in terms of their relative importance in your decision to seek employment with the particular agency you did (1 being the most important, to 6 being the least important. Use each number, 1 through 6, only once).
____Only available police employment at the time
____Agency's salary compared to others
____Agency's prestige compared to others
____Nature of the jurisdiction (that is, suburban vs. urban; lower class vs. middle class, etc.)
____Agency's recruitment efforts
____Agency's career and promotion opportunities

____ 8. Do you regard employment in the law enforcement/criminal justice field (that is, not necessarily your present agency) as:

1. Temporary available employment (less than one year)
2. Short-term employment (one to five years)
3. Career

____ 9. Do you regard employment with the police agency where you are now as:
1. Temporary available employment (less than one year)
2. Short-term employment (one to five years)
3. Career

10. Whether or not you have completed some college credit, would you rank order the following types of educational incentive programs (rewards for college credit completed) in terms of their attractiveness to you (1 being the most attractive, to 4 being the least attractive. Use each number, 1 through 4, only once):
____Percentage salary increment (for example, 5% or 10% extra for specified amount of college work completed)
____Seniority salary increment (for example, starting at the two-year seniority salary level for specified amount of college work completed, thus allowing college personnel to "get to the top" faster)
____Shorter time in rank before qualifying for promotion (for example, eligible for promotion to sergeant in three years instead of five years)
____Preference given for special assignments (for example, investigative, tactical, or crisis intervention units)

If you have completed some college credit, please answer questions 11 through 18. If not, skip to question 19.

____11. Does your agency require as qualification for employment:
1. Only completion of high school or equivalent
2. Some college work (anything ranging from a few credits to a BA/BS degree)

____12. Have you received an academic degree? Indicate highest received.
1. None as yet
2. Associate degree
3. Baccalaureate degree
4. Graduate or professional degree (MS, Ph.D., LLB, JD, etc.)

____13. Major field of study in college:
1. Law Enforcement or Criminal Justice
2. Social Science (Sociology, Psychology, Political Science, etc.)
3. Education (kindergarten through 12 teacher preparation)
4. Arts and Letters
5. Business or Management
6. Natural Sciences (Chemistry, Engineering, etc.)
7. No declared major (non-preference student)
8. Other: _____

____14. Did you receive any LEEP assistance (Law Enforcement Education Program grant or loan) prior to your employment as a police officer?
1. Yes
2. No

____15. At what point in time did you decide to pursue employment in law enforcement?
1. Lifelong ambition
2. Upon entering college
3. After entering but well before terminating college study
4. Very near or upon termination of college study
5. Some time after terminating college study

____16. Were you in a police cadet program prior to becoming a law enforcement officer?
1. Yes
2. No

____17. Did your agency have a percentage salary increment or other reward program for completed education at the time of your employment?

1. Yes
2. No

____18. If so, how important was the incentive reward in your decision to seek employment with the agency?

1. Very important
2. Had some influence
3. Less important

19. Are there any additional comments you would like to make regarding the topic of the questionnaire which would influence future police manpower development program decisions?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your cooperation. If you so requested, a copy of the summary results of the study will be forthcoming within twelve weeks.

APPENDIX C

RELEVANT CONTINGENCY TABLES

Table C–1.—Size of agency and level of education.

Level of Education	Size of Agency			
	<50	50–199	200–499	>500
4 or more years or college	97	95	50	179
2 but less than 4 years of college	189	162	77	283
1 but less than 4 years of college	122	92	55	161
Less than 1 year of college	67	60	32	65
High school	50	32	22	43

Chi Square = 20.810
df = 12
p > .01

Table C–2.—Type of agency and level of education

Level of Education	Type of Agency			
	Municipal	County	State	Other
Completion of 4 or more years of college	265	79	43	32
Completion of 2 but less than 4 years of college	457	141	68	45
Completion of 1 but less than 2 years of college	276	98	32	26
Less than 1 year or college	157	47	10	9
High school	94	36	5	10

Chi Square = 18.958
df = 12
p > .01

Table C–3.—Levels of education and LEEP assistance prior to police employment

LEEP Assistance	Level of Education				
	4 or 4+ yrs.	2 but <4 yrs.	1 but <2 yrs.	<1 yr.	High School
Received LEEP	82	92	33	21	4
Did not receive LEEP	399	618	394	198	1[illegible]

Chi Square = 29.067
df = 4
p < .01

Table C–4.—Anticipated tenure in criminal justice field and receipt of LEEP assistance prior to police employment

LEEP Assistance	Anticipated Tenure in Field		
	<1 year	1–5 years	Career
Received LEEP	0	8	219
Did not receive LEEP	4	76	1468

Chi Square = 1.446
df = 2
p > .01

Table C–5.—Major field of collegiate study and LEEP assistance received prior to police employment

LEEP Assistance	Field of Study							
	Law Enforce./ Crim. Just.	Social Science	Education	Arts & Letters	Bus./Manag.	Nat. Sci.	Non-Pref.	Other
Received LEEP	190	22	2	0	8	1	4	4
Did not receive LEEP	643	275	71	30	224	89	104	127

Chi Square = 141.152
df = 7
$p < .01$

Table C–6.—Academic degree and prior involvement in police-cadet program

Police-Cadet Involvement	Academic Degree			
	None	Associate	Baccalaureate	Graduate/ Professional
Former police-cadet	171	105	49	5
No cadet involvement	813	288	352	14

Chi Square = 29.831
df = 3
$p < .01$

Table C–7.—Agency educational requirement and receipt of reward for completed education

Receipt of Reward	Educational Requirement	
	High School Equivalent	Some College Work Required
Agency had such a reward	408	156
No such reward existed	992	241

Chi Square = 14.802
df = 1
$p < .01$

Table C–8.—Anticipated tenure in present agency and receipt of reward for completed education

Receipt of Reward	Anticipated Tenure With Agency		
	<1 year	1–5 years	Career
Agency had such a reward	2	127	430
No such reward existed	15	393	805

Chi Square = 21.420
df = 2
$p < .01$

Table C–9.—Receipt of reward for completed education and importance of considerations affecting choice of agency

Mean Rank of Consideration	Receipt of Reward		KW	p
	Agency Had Such a Reward	No Such Reward		
Only available police employment at the time	4.90	4.47	13.976	<.01
Agency's salary compared to others	2.85	3.14	13.302	<.01
Agency's prestige compared to others	2.76	2.93	5.020	>.01
Nature of the jurisdiction	3.26	3.13	3.102	>.01
Agency's recruitment efforts	4.69	4.46	11.951	<.01
Agency's career & promotion opportunities	2.51	2.84	12.248	<.01

Table C–10.—Level of education and relative attraction of various educational reward programs

Reward Programs	Level of Education						
	4 or 4+ yrs.	2 but <4 yrs.	1 but <2 yrs.	<1 yr.	High School	KW	p
Percentage salary increment	1.97	1.85	2.03	1.94	2.03	8.740	>.01
Seniority salary increment	2.76	2.88	2.86	2.98	2.86	7.883	>.01
Shorter time before qualifying for promotion	2.40	2.48	2.43	2.50	2.46	1.903	>.01
Preference given for special assignments	2.84	2.75	2.66	2.56	2.63	11.505	>.01

Table C–11.—Level of education and importance of consideration affecting choice of a particular agency

Mean Rank of Considerations	Level of Education							
	Overall	4 or 4+ yrs.	2 but <4 yrs.	1 but <2 yrs.	1 yr.	High School	KW	p
Only available police employment at the time	4.59	4.67	4.65	4.67	4.20	4.41	12.292	>.01
Agency's salary compared to others	3.07	2.99	3.08	3.04	3.10	3.07	.754	>.01
Agency's prestige compared to others	2.89	2.87	2.80	2.93	3.04	3.09	7.848	>.01
Nature of the jurisdiction	3.18	3.14	3.09	3.28	3.23	3.41	7.441	>.01
Agency's recruitment efforts	4.51	4.65	4.50	4.52	4.49	4.13	12.421	>.01
Agency's career and promotion opportunities	2.74	2.64	2.82	2.56	2.95	2.87	12.703	>.01

Table C–12.—Employment by agency educational requirement and importance of considerations affecting choice of agency

Mean Rank of Considerations	Educational Requirement			
	High School or Equivalent	Some College Work Required	KW	p
Only available employment at the time	4.51	4.93	17.004	<.01
Agency's salary compared to others	3.07	2.98	.797	>.01
Agency's prestige compared to others	2.96	2.59	18.645	<.01
Nature of the jurisdiction	3.13	3.29	3.306	>.01
Agency's recruitment efforts	4.57	4.42	2.589	>.01
Agency's career and promotion opportunities	2.73	2.75	.121	>.01

Table C–13.—Present employment's proximity to home town and employment by agency educational requirement

Educational Requirement	Distance		
	Within 50 Miles	51–100 Miles	Over 100 Miles
High school or equivalent	1127	82	189
Some college work	272	34	90

Chi Square = 25.986
df = 2
p < .01

Table C-14.—Size of agency and importance of considerations affecting choice

Mean Rank of Considerations	Size of Agency					
	<50	50–199	200–499	>500	KW	p
Only available employment at the time	3.78	4.52	4.45	5.23	155.721	<.01
Agency's salary compared to others	3.44	2.90	2.96	2.91	45.787	<.01
Agency's prestige compared to others	3.32	3.06	2.93	2.48	11.777	<.01
Nature of the jurisdiction	2.76	2.84	3.24	3.67	133.065	<.01
Agency's recruitment efforts	4.35	4.57	4.49	4.58	7.290	>.01
Agency's career and promotion opportunities	3.31	3.10	2.89	2.09	183.308	>.01

Table C-15.—Levels of education and anticipated tenure of employment in present agency

Anticipated Tenure in Present Agency	Level of Education				
	4 or 4+ yrs.	2 but <4 yrs.	1 but <2 yrs.	<1 yr.	High School
Less than 1 year	7	5	3	2	0
1–5 years	162	201	95	56	32
Career	250	490	324	164	113

Chi Square = 38.672
df = 8
p <.01

Table C-16.—Anticipated tenure in present agency and importance of considerations affecting choice of agency

Mean Rank of Considerations	Anticipated Tenure in Present Agency				
	<1 year	1–5 Years	Career	KW	p
Only available police employment at the time	1.67	3.71	4.99	175.819	<.01
Agency's salary compared to others	3.63	3.12	3.02	2.435	>.01
Agency's prestige compared to others	4.25	3.28	2.72	66.814	<.01
Nature of the jurisdiction	3.38	3.06	3.23	5.340	>.01
Agency's recruitment efforts	3.56	4.50	4.52	7.573	>.01
Agency's career and promotion opportunities	4.56	3.31	2.49	101.612	<.01

Table C-17.—Anticipated tenure in present agency and employment by agency educational requirement

Educational Requirement	Anticipated Tenure in Present Agency		
	<1 year	1–5 years	Career
High school/equivalent	13	428	930
Some college work required	4	90	300

Chi Square = 10.361
df = 2
p <.01

77

Table C–18.—Initial annual salary and anticipated tenure of employment in present agency

Anticipated Tenure in Present Agency	Starting Annual Salary							
	<$7000	$7000–$7999	$8000–$8999	$9000–$9999	$10000–$10999	$11000–$11999	$12000–$12999	>$13000
Less than 1 year	3	4	5	3	2	0	0	0
1–5 years	97	85	106	97	107	32	18	4
Career	94	152	210	322	346	153	43	18

Chi Square = 87.112
df = 14
$p < .01$

Table C–19.—Size of agency and anticipated tenure of employment in present agency

Anticipated Tenure in Present Agency	Size of Agency			
	<50	50–199	200–499	>500
Less than 1 year	10	4	3	0
1–5 years	228	128	61	128
Career	274	303	163	596

Chi Square = 124.444
df = 6
$p < .01$

Table C–20.—Level of education and major field of collegiate study

Field of Study	Level of Education				
	4 or 4+ yrs.	2 but <4 yrs.	1 but <2 yrs.	<1 yr.	High School
Law Enforcement/Criminal Justice	141	344	212	121	16
Social Science	117	93	54	29	4
Education	35	21	15	2	0
Arts & Letters	12	11	5	3	0
Business Management	57	104	56	14	1
Natural Science	21	44	18	7	0
Non-Preference	0	34	44	30	0
Other	38	59	22	11	1

Chi Square = 184.207
df = 28
$p < .01$

Table C–21.—Anticipated tenure in criminal justice field and major field of collegiate study

Field of Study	Anticipated Tenure in Field		
	1 year	1–5 years	Career
Law Enforcement/Criminal Justice	1	22	801
Social Science	1	17	274
Education	0	6	67
Arts & Letters	0	4	26
Business/Management	1	8	220
Natural Science	0	12	76
Non-Preference	1	3	101
Other	0	12	119

Chi Square = 42.279
df = 14
$p < .01$

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